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ENGLISH GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION

GORDON A.
SOUTHWORTH



THOMAS R. SHEWELL & COMPANY

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ENGLISH
GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION

FOR HIGHER GRADES

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THOS. R. SHEWELL AND COMPANY

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PREFACE.

In the study of language, aside from the mental training it gives, there are two fundamental aims: (1) to give the learner power to express his own thoughts with precision; (2) to enable him to understand the thoughts of others. The importance of these aims can hardly be exaggerated. Vagueness and inaccuracy in expression as well as in thinking are a fruitful source of misunderstanding and inefficiency. Hence the growing insistence upon the study of language in every scheme of education.

For the attainment of these ends at least three things are necessary. Presented in their logical, not their chronological order they are:— a knowledge of grammatical forms and the relations of words in sentences as established by the present usage of the most careful and acceptable writers and speakers; abundant and suitably graded practice in the oral and written expression of the student's thought; and, finally, an acquaintance with the best literature.

It is the proper function of a text-book in English grammar and composition to place before the student an orderly and intelligible statement of the principles that determine the structure of words and sentences, and at the same time to furnish exercises for practice in the application of those principles. Provision for the third essential, the study of literature, must be left mainly to the works of the writers who have built up or who are building up our literature, and to manuals adapted to that especial end. Yet even here, since a knowledge of the principles of grammar is essential to the right interpretation of an author, opportunity for exercise in their application in literary analysis should not be omitted entirely from a school grammar.

Though both composition and grammar contribute in greater or less degree to the same end, the ability to use language intelligently and with facility, yet they differ essentially in their character and method of treatment. For this reason, in the arrangement of the book no attempt has been made to intermingle exercises in composition with work in grammar. Part I., accordingly, treats of composition in its various forms, and contains exercises in great variety adapted to the growing experience and intelligence of the pupil. They are not to be taken consecutively, but are to be used as varying needs may warrant.

Part II. deals somewhat at length with the sentence as the structural unit in the use of language, because a knowledge of its elements and their relation one to another must logically precede any detailed study of words and their forms. The parts of speech are briefly treated in this connection to give an intelligent idea of the composition and character of the elements of sentences as well as to show that classification and inflection depend upon use.

Part III. presents the parts of speech with considerable fullness of detail in their classes, inflection, and syntax. Teachers will of course discriminate between what is to be learned and what is given only for reference. Attention is called to the treatment of case, both as an inflection and as a relation; to the unusually full presentation of infinitives and participles; to the tabulated summaries at the close of chapters for purposes of review; and to standard literary selections for study.

Throughout the book sentences for illustration and study are given in abundance. That the student may learn that the rules that govern form, structure, and good usage are general in their application, they have been intentionally drawn both from literature and from the language of ordinary intercourse.

In both composition and grammar special emphasis has been laid on the choice of the proper word. The tendency towards freedom if not looseness in the use of forms, and the disposition to ignore certain well-established rules on the part of latter-day writers and speakers, have been discouraged by pretty close adherence to the usage of those who are striving to maintain the highest standards. It may not be possible to stem the tide, but certainly the efforts of teachers and text-books should be directed towards keeping the language free from corrupting and weakening forms of speech.

The Appendix contains a brief history of the growth of English, Rules for punctuation, a chapter upon the composition and derivation of words, etc.

In the preparation of this book the author has had the advice and assistance of gentlemen of the ripest scholarship and long experience in teaching. Grateful acknowledgments are made for the helpful criticisms and suggestions of supervisors and teachers whose use of the author's other language books has shown where changes or additions were possible in the interests of clearness, simplicity, or fuller treatment of certain subjects.

Constant reference has been made to the works of grammarians of acknowledged repute, as Mason, Sweet, and Nesfield among English, and Whitney and Carpenter, among American authors. Thanks are due to Houghton, Mifflin & Co., and D. Appleton & Co. for their courtesy in allowing the use of selections from their publications.

July 1, 1901.

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TO TEACHERS.

It is assumed that this book has behind it a live teacher who knows—

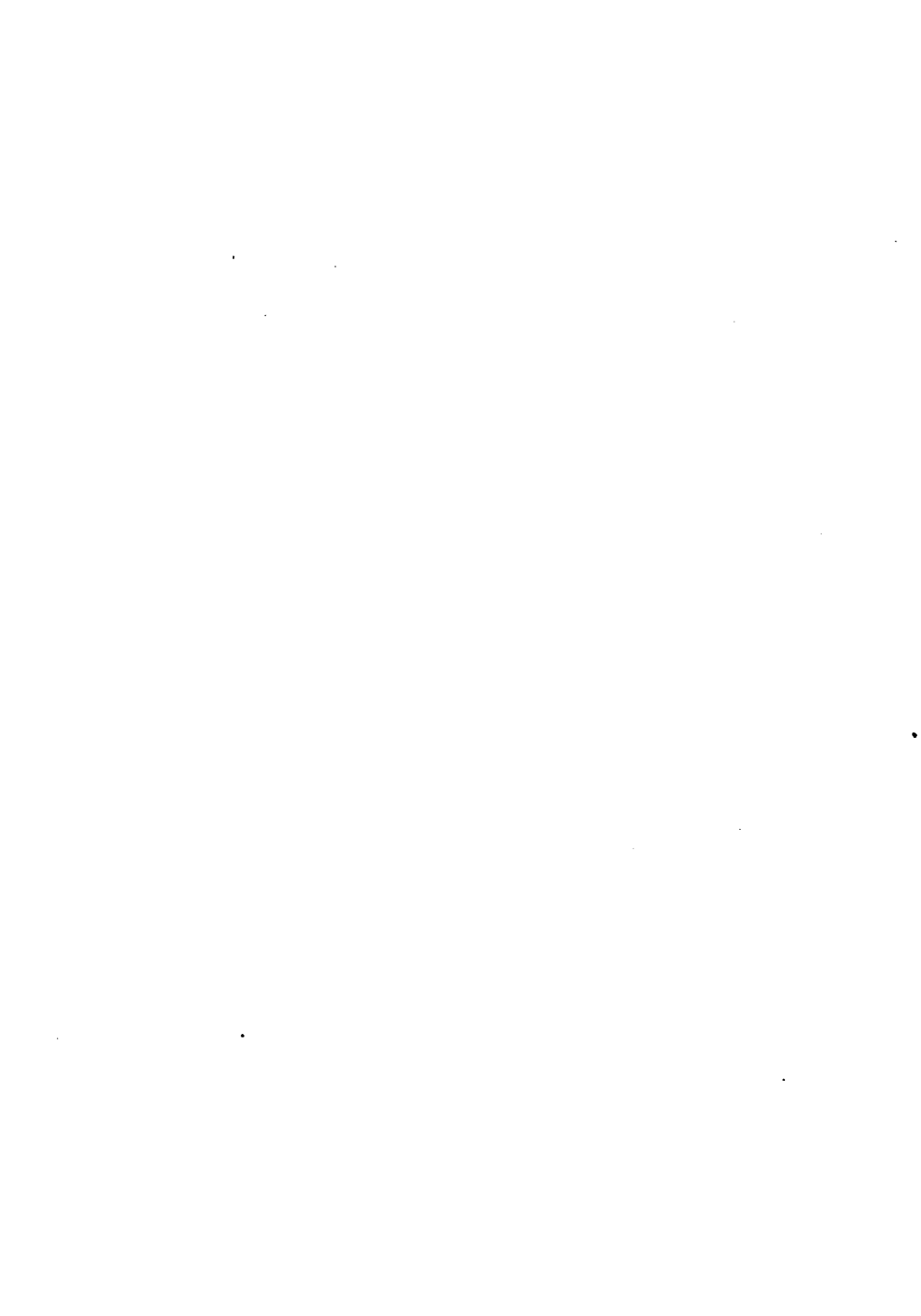
- (1) The *student*, his attainments and needs ;
- (2) The *subject* to be taught ; how it is to be best adapted to those needs ; and
- (3) The *book*, its plan and methods, and how it may be most advantageously used.

A text-book is but a means to an end, and is most effective when best understood. Teachers are therefore invited to acquaint themselves at the outset with the general plan of this book, and then to use it discriminatingly and with the interests of the student solely in view.

The first seventy-five pages (Part I.) do not treat of grammar, but furnish suggestions and material for *composition*. No part—letter-writing for example—is to be taken *seriatim* ; but selections are to be made from time to time, now from this line of work and then from that, in such a way as to give practice in various kinds of written composition. There should be constant correlation of language with other subjects. What the student needs should govern choices. This part of the book may be used during the entire time that grammar is being studied, but let the distinction between *composition* and *grammar* be constantly borne in mind.

Parts II. and III. treat of the *grammar* of the language. Part II. teaches the *structure of sentences*. Enough is presented concerning the parts of speech to give a knowledge of the elements of sentences, and to show how *use* furnishes the basis of classification. Inductive methods and a logical order are followed. Exercises abound, but time need not be spent upon them after the subject they illustrate is understood.

Part III. treats fully of the *parts of speech*, their classes, forms, and syntax. Much is given that may be used only for reference, and teachers must exercise their judgment concerning details. Attention may be focused on essentials whenever local conditions or requirements demand it. Or if the age and capacity and time of the student warrant, the more difficult and less important portions may be considered. But whatever is attempted, the object aimed at should be clear and definite, and both means and method should be such as contribute most directly to its attainment. Please read the Preface.



PART I.

COMPOSITION.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTORY.

1. Ever since we began to talk we have been learning the use of language; that is, we have been learning how to make other persons know what we want and what we think and how we feel, by *speaking* to them *in words* which they will hear and understand.

As we grew older we learned to express our thoughts and feelings by *writing our words* for others to see and read; and in this way, if we were all deaf and dumb, we should still be able to use our language.

2. The letters used in *writing* a word merely stand for the sounds we make in *speaking* it, so that it is really the same language we use in these two ways, and the words are the same.

3. The Study of Language is the study of words and of the proper use of them in expressing what we have to say.

4. In our language, — the English, spoken first only in England, but now used in many other parts of the world, — there are thousands and thousands of words, each with a different

meaning. It is by our study of language that we are to become familiar with the pronunciation, the spelling, and the meaning of these words, and to acquire readiness in using them to express our thoughts.

(a) By this study, too, we shall learn to choose right forms of appropriate words and to put them together properly in our sentences. This knowledge will enable us to correct the wrong habits of speaking and writing into which ignorance or carelessness or the imitation of bad examples may have led us.

5. The surest way to become skillful in the use of language is by *constant practice* in correct speaking and writing. We should read books that are written in the best English, and we should study and imitate the best writers and speakers in our choice of words and in our way of putting them together, so that we may use our language easily, as a good workman uses his tools, and so that we may be able to correct our own errors.

6. Besides doing all this, it will be well to understand a little more about *words*, and to learn some of the *rules* for using them. For, although we do not think about rules when we are speaking, they will make it easier for us to study examples of good English, and to form correct habits ourselves. It is pleasant, too, to feel that we know about our language, and that we can reason about our forms of expression.

While studying language, then, we ought also to learn how some of our words have been made from others; how they are all divided into classes; how their forms are changed; and how they are put together in sentences. This includes what is called *English Grammar*.

7. Grammar shows how words are made, how their forms are changed, and how they are put together in sentences according to their kinds.

CHAPTER II.

CAPITALS, PUNCTUATION, ETC.

(For Reference or Review.)

8. When *speaking* we ought to vary our *tones* and the length of our *pauses*, so as to make our sentences as expressive as possible. So in *writing*, we should always make our meaning as clear as we can, by using *capital letters* in the proper places, and by dividing our sentences with *marks of punctuation*.

I. RULES FOR THE USE OF CAPITALS, ETC.

9. A *Capital Letter* should be used to begin —

1. Every sentence.
2. Every line of poetry.
3. Every direct quotation.
4. All individual or special names of persons, places, months, and days ; as, —

William Shakespeare, Spain, September, Saturday, Easter.

All words made from them ; as,

Shakespearean, Spanish.

And all abbreviations of them ; as —

Wm., Sept.

5. All names applied to God.

6. The principal words in titles. Thus : —

The President of the United States.
 "The Land of the Midnight Sun."

7. The words I and O should always be capitals.

10. *Italics* [*Italic letters*] are used in printing, for —

A word that is very emphatic.

Short titles of books ; names of ships ; etc.

In writing, we should underline such words or titles.

II. RULES FOR PUNCTUATION.*

11. The *Period* [.] must be used after —

Every complete sentence that is not a question nor an exclamation.

All abbreviations or initial letters.

A heading, title, or signature, when used alone.

12. The *Question-mark* [?] must be used after —

Every complete question.

13. The *Exclamation-point* [!] must be used after —

Every expression that is very exclamatory.

14. The *Comma* [,] must be used to separate from the rest of the sentence —

The name of the person spoken to. Thus : —

John, come forward

A direct quotation, or each of the parts of one if it is divided.

* A fuller treatment of punctuation will be found near the end of this book.

The *Comma* must also be used to separate —

The parts of a series of three or more words of the same kind.

The flags were red, white, and blue.

The parts of a sentence that is made up of two or more sentences. Thus: —

We have come, and you must go.

15. The *Apostrophe* ['] must be used to denote —

Possession.

The omission of letters in contracted words.

The plurals of letters, figures, etc. Thus: —

Dot your i's. Your 4's are poor.

16. *Quotation-marks* [" "] must be used to inclose —

Every direct quotation, or each of the parts into which it is divided.

The title of a book or periodical, if the title is long.

17. The *Hyphen* [-] must be used to separate —

The parts of some compound words.

The syllables of a word written on different lines.

Exercise 1. — Tell why each punctuation-mark is used in these sentences: —

1. How many days are there in a leap year?
2. Can Honor's voice provoke the silent dust?
3. Boys, have you ever read "Tom Brown at Rugby"?
4. Now abideth faith, hope, charity.
5. The houses were low, narrow, and dingy.
6. Julius Cæsar wrote, "I came, I saw, I conquered."
7. "Experience keeps a dear school, but fools will learn in no other."
8. Which sounds better, "No, sir, I can't"; or, "Yes, ma'am, I'll try"?
9. "The Courtship of Miles Standish" was written by Henry W. Longfellow.

III. SENTENCES AND PARAGRAPHS.

18. The letters that make a word are written close together, but we leave a little space between the words that make a sentence.

Between two sentences we should leave twice as much space as between two words.

19. A *Paragraph* is a group of sentences that relate to the same division of a subject. A single sentence may make a paragraph. It should begin on a *separate line*, and should be *indented*, i.e., the first word of a paragraph should be set in a little farther from the left-hand margin than the other lines.

IV. QUOTATIONS.

20. When we introduce the exact language of another person into what we are writing, we make what is called a *Direct Quotation*. Thus:—

Prince Edward and his division were so hard pressed that a message was sent to the King, asking for aid. "Is my son killed?" said the King. "No, sire." "Is he wounded or thrown to the ground?" "No, sire," said the messenger; "but he is very hard pressed." "Then," said the King, "I shall send no aid; because I am resolved that the honor of a great victory shall be his."

21. In writing a direct quotation, we must remember three things:—

- (1) To begin it with a capital.
- (2) To inclose it in quotation-marks.
- (3) To separate it from the rest of the sentence by a comma, unless it is a question or an exclamation.

If the quotation consists of several sentences, it may be preceded by a colon [:]

22. When we introduce anything into our writing as a thought or an opinion of another without using his exact language, we make an *Indirect Quotation*. Thus:—

DIRECT. The King said, “I have lost the hearts of my people.”

INDIRECT. The King said that he had lost the hearts of his people.

Indirect quotations frequently begin with the word “that,” and they require no quotation-marks.

Exercise 2.—Change the direct quotations on page 9 into indirect.

23. A *Divided Quotation* is one which is given in two parts, with some of the writer’s own words between.

Each part should be inclosed in quotation-marks, and should generally be separated from the rest by commas. Thus:—

“I propose to fight it out on this line,” wrote General Grant, “if it takes all summer.”

24. In writing a conversation between two persons, what each one says should generally occupy a separate paragraph. Thus:—

“Colonel Miller,” asked General Brown, “can you silence that battery?”

“I’ll try, sir,” replied the gallant colonel.

MARKS USED IN CORRECTING WRITTEN WORK.

25. [The use of the following marks to indicate errors in written work may be illustrated on the blackboard. All but the caret should be repeated in the margin so as to attract attention. Where there is more than one mark, a line (/) may be used to separate them.]

o under either a small letter or a capital. The other form should be used.

x a cross between two words. Begin a new sentence.

/ this line drawn through a letter or mark means that it is wrong.

ð the de-lê in the margin. Omit what is marked.

- ^ the cā-rēt. Something is wanting, — a letter, a word, or a mark, which may be written in the margin.
- a circle around a mark in the margin. Use this mark.
- [] brackets inclosing words. These words should be omitted in copying.
- ¶ or No ¶ these signs mean begin or do not begin a new paragraph.
- s under a word. The spelling is wrong.
- ww these letters under a word. A wrong word has been used.
- gr these letters in the margin. An error in grammar.
- p error in punctuation.
- ?? these marks in the margin. Inquire about this.

CHAPTER III.

COPYING AND DICTATION.

Exercise 3.—*Copy one or more of the following selections,* or write from the dictation of your teacher, using capitals and punctuation marks correctly.*

1. Capt. Nathan Hale was hanged as a spy during the Revolution. His last words were, "I only regret that I have but one life to give for my country."

2. Dr. Doddridge one day asked his little girl how it was that everybody loved her. "I do not know," she said, "unless it is that I love everybody."

3. "At Frankfort," said little Simson, "I once saw a watch that did not believe in the existence of a watch-maker. It had a very poor movement, by the way, and a pinchbeck case." H. HEINE.

4. So nigh is grandeur to our dust,
So near is God to man,
When duty whispers low, "Thou must,"
The youth replies, "I can." EMERSON.

5. "Some people," says Alphonse Karr, "are always finding fault with Nature for putting thorns on roses. I always thank her for putting roses on thorns."

6. Queen Elizabeth, daughter of King Henry VIII., was born in 1533. She was five-and-twenty years of age when, Nov. 17, 1558, she rode through the streets of London, from the Tower to Westminster Abbey, to be crowned. She died at Richmond, March 24, 1603.

7. "How dismal you look!" said a Bucket to his companion, as they were going to the well.

"Ah!" replied the other, "I was reflecting on the uselessness of our being filled, for, let us go away never so full, we always come back empty."

* *To the Teacher.*—Additional selections from various sources will readily suggest themselves.

CHAPTER IV.

REPRODUCTION OF STORIES.

Exercise 4.— Read and then reproduce from the outline the story of

THE OYSTER AND ITS CLAIMANTS.

Two travelers discovered on the beach
 An oyster, carried thither by the sea.
 'Twas eyed with equal greediness by each ;
 Then came the question whose was it to be.
 One, stooping down to pounce upon the prize,
 Was thrust away before his hand could snatch it ;
 "Not quite so quickly," his companion cries ;
 "If *you've* a claim here, *I've* a claim to match it ;
 The first that saw it has the better right
 To its possession ; come, you can't deny it."
 "Well," said his friend, "my orbs are pretty bright,
 And *I*, upon my life, was first to spy it."
 "You? Not at all ; or, if you *did* perceive it,
 I *smell* it long before it was in view ;
 But here's a lawyer coming — let us leave it
 To him to arbitrate between the two."
 The lawyer listens with a stolid face,
 Arrives at his decision in a minute ;
 And, as the shortest way to end the case,
 Opens the shell, and eats the fish within it.
 The rivals look upon him with dismay :—
 "This Court," says he, "awards you each a shell ;
 You've neither of you any costs to pay,
 And so be happy. Go in peace. Farewell !"

LA FONTAINE.

OUTLINE.

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. The discovery. | 4. The lawyer and his fee. |
| 2. The rival claims. | 5. The verdict rendered. |
| 3. The dispute. | 6. The lesson taught. |

Exercise 5.—Reproduce from the outline, after hearing or reading the story of

THE AFRICAN CHIEF.

W. C. Bryant.

OUTLINE.

Introduction. Description of captive. Appearance. History.

<i>Details of Story.</i>	}	Request for freedom. Offers ornaments.
		The refusal and intention of captors.
		Disclosure of gold concealed in hair.
		Request renewed, and reasons given.

Conclusion. Effect on the chieftain.

Exercise 6.—Listen while it is read, and, with the help of the outline, reproduce the story of

THE INCHCAPE ROCK.

Robert Southey.

OUTLINE.

Introduction. Condition of air, sea, and ship.

<i>Details of Story.</i>	}	Why the holy Abbot placed a bell on the rock.
		How the sea looked on a certain day.
		Sir Ralph walks the deck in merry mood.
		Proposes to vex the Abbot.
		Cuts the bell from the float.
		His voyage, success, and return.
		A storm encountered.

Conclusion. Effect on Sir Ralph.

Exercise 7.—After hearing it read, write from the outline the story of

THE WHITE-FOOTED DEER.

W. C. Bryant.

1. The time and place. 2. Appearance of deer and her habits. 3. The protection of the cottage dame. 4. Tradition of the Indians. 5. The hunter's success. 6. His fatal shot. 7. The red-men's revenge. 8. Desolation.

Exercise 8. — After reading it, write from this outline the story of

PAUL REVERE'S RIDE.

Longfellow.

1. The time.
2. The signal light.
3. The object of the ride.
4. The listening friends discover the movements of the British.
5. The impatient watching of Revere.
6. The signal at last! He mounts and is off!
7. The ride to Medford.
8. Lexington village, its appearance.
9. The ride ended.
10. The result.

Exercise 9. — Study the poem carefully, and then write the story from the outline. Make several direct quotations.

NAUHAUGHT, THE DEACON.

Whittier.

1. Nauhaught and his circumstances.
2. His dream.
3. He visits his traps.
4. His success.
5. Thoughts of home and of his needs.
6. His prayer.
7. He finds the purse.
8. The conflict with temptation.
9. Reasons for keeping the money; for not keeping it.
10. The noble resolve.
11. He visits the inn and finds the owner.
12. The reward.
13. His feelings as he goes home.
14. The angel.

Exercise 10. — Prepare an outline and reproduce the story from it.

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------|
| 1. Bruce and the Spider. | <i>B. Barton.*</i> |
| 2. Small Beginnings. | <i>C. Mackay.*</i> |
| 3. The Milkmaid. | <i>J. Taylor.*</i> |
| 4. The Mountain and the Squirrel. | <i>R. W. Emerson.</i> |
| 5. The Nantucket Skipper. | <i>J. T. Fields.</i> |
| 6. God's Judgment on the Wicked Bishop. | <i>R. Southey.</i> |
| 7. Incident of the French Camp. | <i>R. Browning.</i> |
| 8. Arnold Winkelried. | <i>Montgomery.</i> |
| 9. The Sandpiper. | <i>Celia Thaxter.</i> |
| 10. The Little Match Girl. | <i>Hans Christian Andersen.</i> |
| 11. The Choice of King Midas. | <i>Hawthorne.</i> |
| 12. Horatius at the Bridge. | <i>Macaulay.</i> |
| 13. Sheridan's Ride. | <i>T. B. Read.</i> |
| 14. The Story of Ruth. | <i>Bible.</i> |
| 15. The Legend of Bregenz. | <i>A. A. Procter.</i> |

* Bryant's *Library of Poetry and Song.*

CHAPTER V.

LETTER-WRITING.

26. The most general use of written language is for *Letters*, which we send addressed to absent persons to whom we have something to say.

27. **Kinds.** Letters may, of course, be written upon any subject. They may serve in transacting business ; they may give or ask for information or advice ; or they may take the place of ordinary conversation between friends and acquaintances. Sometimes they are *formal*, sometimes *familiar*.

28. **Form.** By custom a formal letter is made to consist of six parts : —

- | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. The Heading , | 4. The Body of the Letter , |
| 2. The Address , | 5. The Complimentary Ending , |
| 3. The Salutation , | 6. The Writer's Signature . |

I. THE HEADING.

29. The *Heading* of a letter should give the *place* and *date* of writing. If a reply is to be sent to the place of writing, the letter should show exactly where to send it by mail. If a reply is to be sent elsewhere than to the place of writing, the fact should be indicated after the signature. (Form 14.)

1. PLACE.

30. If in a city or in any other place where they need to be known, give (1) the name or number of the **house**, and the name of the **street** (or else the post-office box). Thus : Turner's Inn, Green St. ; or 25 Park Sq. (Forms 1 to 21.)

(2) Always give the name of the **city, town, or post-office** where letters are received.

(3) When it would be of any use to tell the **county**, give that next. It sometimes happens that in one state there are several towns with similar names, so that the name of the county is needed to distinguish them; and if a town is small and little known, it may hasten the delivery of the reply to add the county.

(4) Next comes the name of the **state**, unless you are *sure* that it is not needed.

2. TIME.

31. In familiar letters, and whenever it needs to be known, give first the **day of the week**. (Forms 4 and 7.) In other letters, give only the **day of the month**, the **month**, and the **year**. We may write 24 May 1902, or May 24, 1902.

3. POSITION OF HEADING.

32. The heading may occupy *one, two, or three lines*, according to the space it requires. It begins an inch or more from the top, and about half way across the page toward the right. Each of the following lines, if one is not enough, should begin a little farther to the right. Always put the whole of the date on one line.

4. HEADING OMITTED.

33. Except in business letters, the heading is often omitted, and the place and time are given at the left of the page after the signature. (Forms 12 and 22.)

5. PUNCTUATION.

34. Put commas after every part, except between the name and the day of the month, and between the name and the number of the street or post-office box. Put a period after abbreviations, and at the end of the whole.

II. THE ADDRESS.

35. The *Address* of a letter consists of the name and title of the person or firm to whom it is written. Sometimes, especially in business letters, the residence or place of business is added.

1. NAME AND TITLE.

36. To the name of the person addressed it is polite to add an appropriate title.

(a) Before the name we may write:—

Mr. in addressing a man.

Mrs. [Mistress] in addressing a married woman.

Messrs. [Messieurs] in addressing two or more men.

Miss (pl. **Misses**) in addressing an unmarried woman or a girl.

Master (pl. **Masters**) in addressing a boy.

Rev. or **The Rev.** before the full name or some other title in addressing a clergyman; as, The Rev. C. F. Howe; Rev. Mr. Howe; The Rev. Dr. Howe; *not* Rev. Howe.

Hon. in addressing members of Congress, and a few other high officials.

Dr. in addressing a physician; or any person who has one of the titles M.D., Ph.D., D.D., LL.D., etc.

(b) After the name we may write:—

Esq. in addressing lawyers, many government officers, and sometimes other gentlemen, though it is now used less often than formerly.

(c) In addressing the President of the United States, or the Governor of a State, the following forms may be used:—

To the President,

Executive Mansion,
Washington, D. C.

Sir: (or Mr. President).

To His Excellency, _____

Governor of the State of _____

Sir: (or Your Excellency).

(d) There are many other titles, such as Gen., Col., Supt., Jr., which may be used in addressing the persons to whom they rightfully belong.

(e) Sometimes two or more different titles are used together; as, Prof. Wm. Hale, M.D., LL.D.; but if both have the same meaning, as *Dr.* and *M.D.*, they should not be used together. With *Esq.*, no other title should be used; and we should not say *Mr. Dr. Brown*.

2. RESIDENCE.

37. By residence is meant the name of the post-office and state; sometimes also the street and number where a person receives letters.

3. ARRANGEMENT AND POSITION.

38. The address may, like the heading, occupy one, two, or three lines. The first line should contain nothing but the name and title, and should not be indented from the left margin. Each of the following lines should be indented somewhat more than the one before it.

39. In *business letters* the address should be given on the two or three lines below the heading. In *familiar letters*, if given in full, it should begin on the line below the signature. In other letters it may be written at the end instead of at the top, especially when the *heading* is very long. (Form 17.)

III. THE SALUTATION.

40. The *Salutation* is a courteous or affectionate greeting that serves to introduce the body of the letter.

1. FORM.

41. Its form depends upon who is writing, who is addressed, and what degree of intimacy or friendship there is between the two. Hence there are many forms from which to choose, and only a few can be given here. Where several forms are given in succession, the first are the most formal, the last are the most familiar.

(1) In business or formal letters of any sort we write :—

Sir (pl., Sirs or Gentlemen);	Madam (pl., Ladies);
Dear Sir or Sirs;	Dear Madam;
My dear Sir.	My dear Madam.

A young unmarried woman is addressed simply as (for example) Miss Brown, or Dear Miss Brown.

(2) In more familiar letters, we may use one of the preceding forms, or such as these :—

Friend Brown;	My dear Ned;	Cousin Clara;
Dear Brown;	My dear Friend;	My dear Mother.

2. POSITION.

42. If the address consists of three lines, the salutation may be indented as much as the second line. (Form 21.) If it consists of one or two lines, the salutation should be written a little to the right. (Forms 8, 19.)

If the address is omitted here, the salutation should begin at the left margin of the line below the heading.

Although usage is not uniform, there is a tendency among typewriters to place the salutation by itself on the line below the address without indention. This is done so that the body of the letter may stand alone.

3. PUNCTUATION.

43. After the salutation, use a comma, a colon, a comma and a dash, or a colon and a dash, according to the degree of formality with which the letter begins. The comma is the least formal.

IV. THE BODY OF A LETTER.

44. The *Body* of a letter is the message itself, or what we have to say.

45. **Contents.** (a) Do not make such needless remarks as "I now take my pen in hand," or "I will now close," but begin with something worth saying; express yourself clearly and concisely in complete sentences grouped into paragraphs according to the sense; and stop when you have done. Use simple words, avoiding slang. Careless or illegible penmanship may not only occasion costly mistakes, but it shows a want of respect.

46. (b) The reply to a business letter should acknowledge its receipt, give its date, and refer to its contents. We may say, for example, "Your favor of the 28th ult., in answer to our inquiries, is at hand," etc.

47. **Position, Form, etc.** (a) The Body begins under the end of the introduction, or if that is long, on the same line with the salutation. There should be a narrow margin at the left extending the whole length of the page; we should *write legibly*, without crowding, and never divide a syllable at the end of a line.

48. (b) None but the most common abbreviations are to be used, and no figures except in connection with dates and large sums of money. The sign & is to be used only in the name of a firm.

[A letter is given as a model on p. 26.]

V. THE COMPLIMENTARY ENDING.

49. The *Complimentary Ending* is a courteous assurance of good faith, respect, or affection, which is added at the end of a letter. One should say something that is in keeping with the style of letter he has written, and with his relations to the person addressed; and he should at the same time express his feelings truthfully.

1. FORM.

50. (a) In business or formal letters the common forms are :

Yours truly ;	(Very) truly yours ;
Yours respectfully ;	(Very) respectfully yours.

And in extremely formal letters, such as are sometimes written to high officials, Form 17, or something similar, may be used. (Forms, 1 to 21.)

51. (b) For friendly or familiar letters there is a great variety of other forms, some of which are given in the models. Other examples are :

Faithfully yours ;	With highest regards ;	Yours ever ;
Most truly yours ;	Yours sincerely ;	Your loving sister ;
Your devoted son ;	Ever most gratefully yours.	(Forms 3, 6, 14.)

“Yours, etc.,” is vulgar.

2. POSITION.

52. The conclusion begins on the line following the body of the letter, and is indented about one-third the width of the page. If it is long, it should be arranged in two or three lines, like the heading and the address. (Forms, pp. 22-29.)

VI. THE SIGNATURE.

53. The *Signature* shows the name of the person who writes or dictates the letter. When a person writes as an officer of any sort, he should add his official name (Form 9); and when he signs for another person, he should give both names. (Form 20.)

54. (a) The signature is to be written *distinctly* on the line following the complimentary ending, and indented about half the width of the page.

(b) In all business, formal, or extremely important letters, it should be written in full, and in every other letter when there might possibly be a doubt as to who sent it.

(c) A lady when writing to a stranger should so sign her name as to show whether she is to be addressed as Miss or as Mrs. (Form 22.)

PLACE AND DATE, OR ADDRESS, AT THE END.

55. (a) When the place and date are not given as a heading, they are to be added in the same form at the left of the page, on the line below the signature. (Forms 12 and 22.) Or, —

(b) The *address* may be put here if omitted at the beginning. (Form 17.)

(c) The place to which a reply is to be sent should be given here, if it is not the same as the place of writing. (Form 14.)

VII. FOLDING.

56. Fold a **letter-sheet** by turning up the lower edge to meet the upper evenly. Then fold twice the other way, — first the left edge, then the right, making the distance between the folds a little less than the width of the envelope.

57. Fold the lowest third of a **note-sheet** toward the top, then fold the upper end toward the bottom. If the sheet is wider than the length of the envelope, fold it in the middle from the bottom to the top, and then from left to right. If the envelope is nearly square, fold the paper once in the middle.

VIII. THE SUPERScription, ETC.

58. The *Superscription*, or address upon the envelope, is chiefly for the benefit of post-office officials, and should be written so fully and so distinctly as not to hinder in any way the speedy delivery of the letter.

59. Contents. Besides the name and title with the post-office and state, there must be sometimes the street and number; sometimes the county; and sometimes the name of the person to whose care the letter is sent, — all arranged as shown in Forms 23-26.

60. Position. The superscription should generally be on the lower half of the envelope, and each successive line should begin a little farther toward the right.

61. Punctuation is meant to be a help to the reader; and on envelopes where there is nothing but the address, and where the parts of that are already

separate enough, the best usage is to omit terminal points, as in the models. It is best to give the name of the state in full, on a separate line.

62. Return Address. The name and address of the sender are often placed in the upper left-hand corner, that the letter may be returned if not delivered. This is sometimes an important addition, as when it is not certain that the letter is rightly addressed, or when the full name of the writer is not given inside. (Form 25.)

63. The **stamp** should be evenly placed, right end up, about an eighth of an inch from the upper right-hand corner. Inclose a stamp to pay for sending the reply, when you think it only fair to do so.

Exercise 11. — I. Write the following as **headings** properly arranged : —

1. Oct. 25, 1901, Saratoga, State of New York, 217 Spring St.
2. I am in Andover, in Oxford Co., in Maine, at the Eagle Hotel, July 21, 1902.
3. At Home on Washington's Birthday, 1904, Thursday.

II. Write the various **addresses** and **salutations** that you might use —

1. In writing to your father; your brother or sister; your uncle; your grandmother; your cousin.
2. In writing to an intimate friend; to your teacher; to a physician; to a neighbor.
3. In writing to a clergyman who is a stranger to you; to the chairman of your school committee; to the superintendent of schools.

III. Rule rectangles on slate or paper, making them the exact shape of some envelope, and **copy** the **models** on p. 27. Then write **envelope addresses** to the following : —

1. To your father, mother, brother, sister, or some classmate; to some clergyman of your acquaintance; to a friend, in care of his or her father, whose post-office box is numbered 47.
2. To a doctor of divinity named Gilbert Shaw, living in Cincinnati, at 24 Wilson Sq.
3. To Emmett, Kent & Co., a firm of lumber dealers, doing business in Clinton, Illinois. Clinton is in De Witt Co.
4. To the wife of John Alden, who lives in the capital of Ohio, at 91 Garfield Avenue.
5. To a firm composed of Miss Decker and Miss Fitz, whose millinery rooms are on Cumberland St., No. 201, Nashville, Tennessee.

65. Observe carefully the position, capitals, and punctuation of the parts of a letter as given in these forms.

	[Form 1.] Newton, May 25, 1901.
[Form 2.]	
Dear Father,	
	I am sure you will be glad to
	[Body of Letter.]
hear, etc.	
	[Form 3.]
	Your affectionate son,
	Edward Bacon.

	[Form 4.] Lexington, Mass., Friday, April 19, 1902.
[Form 5.]	
My dear Emily:	
	What a delightful way you
have of reminding one, etc.	
	[Form 6.]
	Yours as ever,
	Alice.

[Form 7.]

19 Ray St., Brooklyn.,

Tuesday, Aug. 12, 1902.

[Form 8.]

Mrs. Emma Sanderson,

Dear Madam, —

Your inquiry of the 10th instant concerning, etc.

[Form 9.]

Yours truly,

William G. Ward,

City Clerk.

[Form 10.]

Dear Miss Brown:

In reply to your kind invitation for Thursday next.....

[Form 11.]

Very truly yours,

Rebecca Foster.

[Form 12.]

"The Elms,"

Newbury, 10 May 1902.

2 o'clock.

[Form 13.]

596 Cleveland Ave.,
Chicago, June 5, 1903.

I must tell you, my dear Mother, what
a surprise, etc.....

[Form 14.]

Ever, my dear Mother,
Your loving daughter,
Grace Nelson.

Please direct to
Meadville, Penn.

[Form 15.]

Continental Hotel,
Washington, D. C.
October 4, 1906.

[Form 16.]

My dear Sir:—

Inquiries at the Treasury De-
partment, etc.....

[Form 17.]

I am, Sir,
Your obedient servant,
William Reynolds.

Hon. John D. Long,
Boston, Mass.

[Form 18.]

(P. O. Box 1925.)
 St. Louis, Mo.,
 Dec. 29, 1902.

[Form 19.]

Messrs. James Monroe & Co.,
 Syracuse, N. Y.

Dear Sirs: — Enclosed please
 find a draft, etc.....

[Form 20.]

Yours respectfully,
 A. G. Lane & Co.,
 By John Cole.

[Form 21.]

William E. Hatch,
 Supt. of Schools,
 New Bedford, Mass.

My dear Sir: — Will you kindly in-
 form me, etc.....

[Form 22.]

Respectfully yours,
 (Miss) Emily A. Jenkins.
 Winchester, Ind.,
 Aug. 4, 1902.

66. Forms of superscription.

<p>[23.]</p> <p>Stamp.</p> <p>Mr. James O. Hunt 19 Spring St. Oswego New York</p>	<p>[24.]</p> <p>Stamp.</p> <p>A. S. Grant & Co. Box 193 Toledo Ohio</p>
<p>[25.]</p> <p>Stamp.</p> <p>RETURN TO THE CENTURY CO. NEW YORK.</p> <p>Mrs. Geo. W. Emerson Franklin Morgan Co. Illinois</p>	<p>[26.]</p> <p>Stamp.</p> <p>Miss Laura S. Bacon Care of C. G. Hale, Esq. Times Building Chicago</p>

[Form 18.]

(P. O. Box 1925.)
 St. Louis, Mo.,
 Dec. 29, 1902.

[Form 19.]

Messrs. James Monroe & Co.,
 Syracuse, N. Y.

Dear Sirs: — Enclosed please
 find a draft, etc.....

[Form 20.]

Yours respectfully,
 A. G. Lane & Co.,
 By John Cole.

[Form 21.]

William E. Hatch,
 Supt. of Schools,
 New Bedford, Mass.

My dear Sir: — Will you kindly in-
 form me, etc.....

[Form 22.]

Respectfully yours,
 (Miss) Emily A. Jenkins.
 Winchester, Ind.,
 Aug. 4, 1902.

66. Forms of superscription.

<p>[23.]</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Stamp.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Mr. James O. Hunt 19 Spring St. Oswego New York</p>	<p>[24.]</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Stamp.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">A. S. Grant & Co. Box 193 Toledo Ohio</p>
<p>[25.]</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Stamp.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Mrs. Geo. W. Emerson Franklin Morgan Co. Illinois</p> <p style="text-align: center;">RETURN TO THE CENTURY CO. NEW YORK.</p>	<p>[26.]</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Stamp.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Miss Laura S. Bacon Care of C. G. Hale, Esq. Times Building Chicago</p>

[Form 27.]

194 Warren St.,
 Manchester, N. H.,
 June 29, 1901.

Mr. Edward O. Spinner,
 Supt. of the Atlantic Mills,
 Lawrence, Mass.,

Dear Sir:—I wish to apply for the position advertised in the "Sun."

I am fourteen years old, and have just graduated from the Adams School. I am well and strong, and not afraid of work, and shall try to be faithful to my employer.

I can bring a recommendation from my teacher, Mr. Ford, and another from the gentleman for whom I worked during my last summer vacation.

Yours very respectfully,
 Harry B. Edmunds.

67. Forms for notes of invitation, etc.

[To the Teacher. Informal invitations may follow one of the preceding letter-forms. Formal invitations and replies are written in the third person upon note-paper or cards. They are dated at the bottom, and no signature is added. The following models may be used.]

FORMAL INVITATION.

Miss Ruth Fielding requests the pleasure of Miss Helen Thayer's company on Tuesday evening, May fifteenth, at eight o'clock.

14 Park Avenue.

INVITATION ACCEPTED.

Miss Helen Thayer accepts with pleasure Miss Fielding's invitation for Tuesday evening next.

121 Concord Square, May tenth.

INVITATION NOT ACCEPTED.

Miss Alice Winslow regrets that the serious illness of her mother prevents her acceptance of Miss Fielding's kind invitation for Tuesday evening, May fifteenth.

Fairview, Saturday.

Exercise 12. — Upon a properly shaped page, *write* the very best *letter* you can, whether long or short, and whatever the subject. Refer constantly to preceding forms and directions. Only constant practice can give you facility.

1. Your father wishes you to bring your copy-book home that he may see your improvement in penmanship. Write a letter to your teacher, asking permission to do this. You may say which book you mean, when you would like to take it, or how your father came to ask about your writing. (Use Forms 1, 10, 11.)

2. Your teacher thinks you have been rather careless in your writing, and wishes your father to wait until the close of the term before examining the book. Write to your father a letter explaining the matter fully. (Use Forms 1, 2, 3.)

3. A friend of yours named —, has invited you to drive next Saturday afternoon. Write to your mother, who is in an adjoining town, asking leave to go, and telling her all you know about how many are going, where you are to go, and how late you are to stay. (Follow Forms 7, 2, 3.)

4. Your mother has a plan to receive company at that time, and wishes you to be at home. Write to your friend about the matter, expressing your thanks and regrets. (Use Forms 7, 5, 6.)

5. Miss Elsie White, of 13 Franklin St., Hartford, has received a Maltese kitten by express from her friend Mary Ford, who lives in Newington. She is much pleased, and writes a letter acknowledging the gift, and mentioning some traits that she has discovered in her new pet. Write Elsie's letter. (Select from Forms 4 and 7, 5, 10, and 13.)

6. Master Harry W. Smith has just received by mail from his Uncle Henry a copy of Dickens's "A Child's History of England," as a birthday present. He writes to his uncle, acknowledging the receipt of the book, and expressing his thanks. The boy lives in Rutland, Vt., and has always been fond of stories and of history. Write his letter. (Look at Forms 4 and 18, 2 and 8, 3, 11, before you decide what to use.)

7. Write to Messrs. Geo. Beck & Sons, Rochester, N. Y., asking them to send you six varieties of flower seeds, which you may name in a column, with the price of each set opposite. Write as if you inclosed a postal order for fifty cents. (Select what you think appropriate forms.)

8. Write to the postmaster in your city or town to ask the cost of sending books through the mail. Before writing decide exactly what you mean to ask. (Compare Forms 13 and 18, 21, 11, 9, 20.)

9. Write the answer that, as an officer of the Government, he sends you. (Select parts of Forms 8, 9, 17.)

10. Write to a friend asking to borrow a certain book, and offering to send in return one which you name. Tell why you want the one, and why you recommend the other.

11. Write his reply. He explains when you can have the book, and why not at once. (Try Form 12.)

12. Write to the chairman of the School Committee, inviting him to be present at exercises to be held in your school on Washington's birthday. State the time, and tell what is to be expected. (Use Forms 21, 26.)

13. Monroe & Henry are expressmen doing business at 147 Spruce St. Write them to call for your trunk in time for a certain train which you wish to take at the nearest railroad station. Be very definite.*

14. Alice Harrison Doe invites her cousin, Mary Sands, to spend the holidays with her, and tells some of her plans for Christmas Day, and the week following. Alice lives at the Armington Home, Philadelphia, and her cousin at 213 Murray Ave., Harrisburg. Refer to a previous visit. (Use Forms 15, 12.)

15. Miss Mary's mother is ill, and she is unable to come. Write the reply in which she tells what she is busy about.

* The teacher may give directions for writing this in the third person.

16. Having broken a neighbor's window while playing ball, you write an apology, and tell what arrangements you will make for repairing the damage, if the gentleman does not object. (Use Forms 7, 8, 11.)

17. Write to the publishers of this book, asking to have a copy of it sent to some person who lives in a neighboring town, and who has asked you to buy a copy for him. Write as if you were to inclose payment. (Use Forms 15, 21.)

18. Suppose you have trouble with your eyes or head, and wish to drop one of your studies for a time. Write to some member of the School Board, or to the Superintendent, making the request, giving your reasons, and referring to a physician. (Use Forms 21, 27.)

19. Samuel Underhill, who lives in Park Square, Troy N.Y., incloses two dollars to Perry, Mason & Co., publishers of *The Youth's Companion*, Boston, Mass., as the subscription price of that magazine for a year. Write his letter.

20. Write to Wm. Constable & Co., asking that some samples of dress goods be sent to your mother's address. Give them some idea of the kind wanted. They do business in Broadway, New York City.*

21. Mrs. Betsey Trotwood, who lives in Syracuse, N.Y., at 95 Herkimer St., has received a tub of butter from Ralph Lane, a farmer living in Jamesville, N.Y. It was sent with the understanding that it might be exchanged. It is not satisfactory, and Mrs. T. writes accordingly. Reproduce her letter. (Use Form 19.)

22. Write to D. Appleton & Co., New York, asking them to send you by express, C.O.D., four books, or sets of books, which you are to name. Give them an idea of the style of binding you prefer.

23. Write to some clergyman whom you know, asking him for a letter of introduction and recommendation to a gentleman of whom you expect to seek employment in another city.

24. Thomas Bond, Secretary of the "Alert" Base Ball Club, Clinton, writes a challenge, addressed to Frank Merriman, Secretary of the "Stars" of Fairview, for a series of three match games, beginning next Saturday afternoon.

Merriman replies, accepting the challenge, and proposing a time and place for a meeting to arrange details. Write both letters. (See Forms 21 and 9.)

25. Dr. Thomas F. Snow lives on Revere St., Boston, at number 96. He wishes to purchase a residence in one of the suburbs, costing not over \$5,000. He writes to Geo. H. Chapin & Co., Real Estate Agents, Journal Building, Boston, telling them what he wants, and asking them to communicate with him. Write his letter. (Use Forms 13, 21, 11.)

* May be written in the third person, without the writer's name.

26. They reply to Mr. Snow, describing two places they have for sale, — one in Arlington, and the other in Melrose. They give him an idea of the size of each house, of the location, price, terms of payment, etc., and invite him to call and see them. Write their letter. (Use Forms 7, 14, 20.)

27. **FOR SALE.** A farm of thirty-five acres, all under cultivation. Price reasonable, and terms easy. For full particulars, address **LEMUEL MASON**, Sharon, Mass.

Edward Poorman answers this advertisement. His address is P. O. Box 315, Providence, R.I. Write his letter.

28. Mr. Mason replies, giving a full description of the farm, stating price, reasons for selling, and other facts which a purchaser might wish to know. Write his letter.

29. Write to your grocer to send you "on account" a definite quantity of four kinds of groceries. You may complain of the quality of the last oil he sent you, and explain how it burns. You will try a different brand.

30. **TO LET,** A small house, in a pleasant, retired situation. For particulars, address **Jos. B. ARNOLD**, P. O. Box 1492, Chicago, Ill.

Dr. Allan Downs, who lives at 396 Madison St., in the same city, answers this advertisement, asking information. Write his letter.

31. Mr. Arnold replies, describing the house and giving its location, price of rent, etc. Write his letter.

32. As clerk for Bond Brothers, dealers in hay and grain, 94 Portland St., Lowell, Mass., write to the Freight Agent of the B. & M. R.R., Portland, Me., inquiring about the delay in the shipment of three carloads of hay consigned to your firm on a certain date.

33. **WANTED.** A boy in a hardware store to learn the business. Must be honest, willing to work, and ready to give up the use of tobacco if desired. Address, stating age, residence, qualifications, and references, **FRANK PURINGTON & Co.**, 294 Euclid Ave., Cleveland, Ohio.

Guy Wheeler, who lives in Sandusky, Ohio, answers this advertisement. Write his letter.

34. Write to a classmate, telling what magazine you see each month, and what there is in it that especially interests you.

35. Write to your mother, telling, in a merry, sprightly way, how you pass your time in school on days you like the best.

36. Write to your sister, telling her about a day when everything went wrong with you, and whether it was your own fault or not.

37. Write to a schoolmate, telling what your plans are for your future life after leaving school.

38. Under direction of the teacher the class may exchange letters descriptive of their school or city or town, with a class in some other school in another place.

39. Write as from Havana, Manila, Naples, London, etc., describing your surroundings and experiences.

40. Write a letter of introduction for your friend Harry Newell, who is trying to secure a position as office-boy with Hiram D. Long & Son, lawyers, 257 La Salle St., Chicago.

41. Write for your mother to her friends, Mr. and Mrs. John F. Ayer, a formal invitation to dinner next Wednesday at six o'clock.

42. They send a formal acceptance. Reproduce it. Or,

43. They formally decline on account of a previous engagement. Write their declination.

44. You have just completed a two days' trip into the country with your wheel and your camera. Write your experiences in a letter to a friend in Minneapolis.

45. On your arrival at the Central House, Denver, from Chicago, you find your baggage missing. You telegraph at once to the baggage-master at the station in Chicago making inquiries, describing trunk, and giving orders. Write the telegram of fifteen words exclusive of address and signature.

IMAGINATIVE LETTERS.

Exercise 13. — In writing the following, the heading and the address may be omitted.

1. Two books have long stood side by side in a store. One of them is at last sold, and writes a letter to the other. Imagine how a book would feel to be bought by a boy, or a beautiful young lady, or an old gentleman with a large library, and what experiences it might have to tell.

2. Write what the book that was left might reply about missing its companion, about those that have visited the store, and about its prospects of being sold.

3. A doll that has been neglected for a new and prettier one writes a letter to its little mistress.

4. A little bird that has been left in charge of a friend while its mistress is absent, writes to its mistress a letter.

5. Write the message of an overworked stage-horse to the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals.

6. What would a robin say to the boy who killed its mate and robbed its nest?

7. A polar bear writes to a friend in Greenland, from his cage in Lincoln Park, Chicago, describing his sufferings and giving his opinion of his captors.

CHAPTER VI.

NARRATIVE—WRITING.

I. NARRATIVES OF PERSONAL EXPERIENCE.

[*To the Teacher.*—The pupil should be allowed to describe only what he has actually seen, or heard, or felt.

In order that the narration may be clear and fairly complete, it is important that the pupil be trained to arrange in a reasonable way the topics upon which he is to write, before he begins the actual work of composition. Memoranda must of course be made in the order in which experiences or ideas present themselves, but in every case the writing should follow a definite plan. This plan, or outline, particularly in the earlier exercises, should be submitted first to the teacher.

After some proficiency has been gained in the arrangement of the thoughts to be expressed, the proper grouping of related thoughts into paragraphs should be made clear. A brief study of paragraphs as actually employed in simple narratives will be the readiest way of doing this.]

68. An orderly and connected account of what has sometime taken place may be called a *Narrative*.

Exercise 14.—Narrate your **experience with some pet animal**,—a dog, a cat, a horse, a bird, or rabbits, etc. Observe this order, and make a connected whole :—

1. What pet ; kind or breed, name.
2. Size, color, age, value.
3. How and when obtained.
4. When or where kept.
5. Food ; what, how often, by whom.
6. Habits, day and night.
7. Friends and enemies, or likes and dislikes.
8. Intelligence ; tricks, anecdotes.
9. What became of it, how much affection you have for it, or why it was worth petting.

Exercise 15.—Observe carefully the **events of a day or half-day** in your school, making notes of what happens if need be. Next day narrate these events in the form of a letter to your uncle or aunt, following the order in which they occurred.

Say most about what is most important, but omit nothing that is needed to make the account complete. Try to make it clear and interesting.

Mail this letter if your teacher approves and thinks it is well enough written.

69. *Directions.* In writing a narrative of any kind, —

1. Do not begin a sentence until you have thought it through and know just how it is to end.

2. Keep the order in which the events occurred, unless you have a good reason for following some other method.

3. Mention every point that is needed to give the reader a clear idea of what happened.

4. Say most about what is most important or interesting, and omit useless details.

5. Make the narrative a connected whole, but do not string sentences together with “ands.”

6. Write naturally, as you would talk, and use no words whose meaning you do not know.

7. Arrange your thoughts by *topics*, and make a separate paragraph for each distinct topic.

8. Try to punctuate carefully as you write.

Exercise 16. — Tell how you spent your last pleasant holiday. The following outline may help you.

1. Your subject. 2. Pleasant expectations ; what preparation made ; what hoped for. 3. The night before. 4. The morning ; first occupation ; plans for the day ; company. 5. The afternoon ; where ; with whom. 6. The dinner. 7. The evening ; all details. 8. Feelings ; surprises ; disappointments ; enjoyment.

Exercise 17. — Each of the following may be the subject of a narrative about your **personal experiences**. Begin by making an outline similar to those provided in previous exercises.*

1. The Fourth of July. 2. Christmas. 3. A Saturday afternoon. 4. A Day in the Country. 5. An Evening at the Fair. 6. A Shopping Expedition. 7. A Visit to the Museum. 8. How I helped on the Farm. 9. A Day at the Seaside. 10. The Surprise Party. 11. A Base-ball Match. 12. The Toboggan Slide. 13. A Candy-pull. 14. A Day in the Kitchen. 15. A Journey.

* *To the Teacher.* — Five ten-line exercises in a week will be found much more valuable than one of fifty lines.

16. A Rainy Day. 17. An Out-of-door Geography Lesson. 18. A Fire. 19. Caught in the Rain. 20. My Experience with the Toothache. 21. An Eventful Day. 22. My First Disobedience. 23. A Day on my Bicycle.

Exercise 18.—Under the direction of your teacher, visit with a companion some one of the following in the neighborhood of your school. Then make an outline, and write an account of your visit.

A Cotton Mill.	The Telephone Exchange.
A Shoe Factory.	The Ship Yard.
A Grist Mill.	A Newspaper Press Room.
The Custom House.	A Cemetery.
A Machine Shop.	The Old Fort.
A Bookbinder's.	The Lighthouse.
The Poor House.	The Falls.
The County Jail.	A Brick Yard.
The Old Mill.	A Woodland Road.

II. BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.

Exercise 19.—1. What is a biography ?

2. Write a biography of your father, or brother, or some acquaintance.

3. What is an **autobiography** ? Write one, using these suggestions. —

Your name — birthplace and date — names and occupation of parents — place of residence — schools attended — different studies — out-of-school lessons, such as music or dancing — other occupation or pursuits — habits of rising — work to do — fondness for work — sports — books read — kind of reading preferred — friends — plans for future education — for business — object in life — natural disposition — is it best to be noble or rich or good or wise ?

70. In collecting materials this may serve as an

OUTLINE FOR A BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH.

- I. **Introduction.** Name, and how best known.
- II. **Birth.** Time, place, and — generally — ancestry.
- III. **Childhood and Youth.** Education ; preparation and training for life-work ; early pursuits, habits, disposition.
- IV. **Chief Events of Life,** public and private, in their order.
- V. **Death.** Time, place, circumstances.

VI. Characteristics. Personal appearance and bearing; mental and moral qualities; likes and dislikes, ability and culture.

VII. Results of Life. Development of self; example to others; service to individuals, to the country, to the world.

71. Outline and notes for a sketch of the life of

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

I. Introduction. Sixteenth Pres. of U. S., during Civil War. Savior of country.

II. Birth. Ky., Feb. 12, 1809. Ancestors from England with Wm. Penn. Father could neither read nor write. Mother remarkable woman.

III. Childhood and Youth. Had but a few months' schooling. Toiled all day on farm, read by light of log-fire at night. *The Bible, Pilgrim's Progress, Æsop's Fables* his favorites. Borrowed law-books at night to study, returned them in the morning.

IV. The Chief Events of Life. In 1816 his father moved to Indiana. At 11, he met a great loss in death of mother. At 19, on a flatboat to New Orleans. At 21, moved to Illinois, helped build log cabin, split 3000 rails for fence. Then successively clerk, captain in Black Hawk war, bookkeeper, postmaster, surveyor, and lawyer. At 25, in Legislature. Home in Springfield. Married in 1842. In Congress, 1846. Candidate for U.S. Senator in 1858. Defeated. President, 1861 till death. Condition of country and conduct of war a great anxiety and responsibility. Emancipated slaves, 1863.

V. Death. Assassinated April 14, 1865. Mourned at home and abroad.

VI. Characteristics. Tall, awkward, ungainly. Common sense, honesty, fidelity, kindness, patriotism. "Plain man of the people." One of the great men of history.

VII. Results of Life. Wise conduct of great war. Saved the Union. Freed the slaves. Remembered with affection and gratitude. Next to Washington.

Exercise 20. — Make a study of the **Life of Lincoln** as you find it given in books, and then write a biographical sketch. Use the preceding notes, and follow the directions given in § 70.

Try to express the facts you get in your own language without dependence upon the words of the books that you may consult, and remember that the quality of what you write is of more importance than the quantity.

Exercise 21. — Prepare notes according to the plan given, and write sketches of one or more of these

STATESMEN AND INVENTORS.

George Washington.	Robert Fulton.
Benjamin Franklin.	Eli Whitney.
Alexander Hamilton.	James Watt.
Thomas Jefferson.	George Stephenson.
Andrew Jackson.	S. F. B. Morse.
Daniel Webster.	Charles Goodyear.
Henry Clay.	Elias Howe.
Ulysses S. Grant.	Thomas A. Edison.

Exercise 22. — Write a sketch of the **Life of Longfellow**, using any facts that you can remember from your reading. Those suggested here will not be enough.

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, the best beloved of American poets — Feb. 27, 1807, Portland, Me. — Bowdoin College at 14, graduated at 18 — chosen Professor of Modern Languages at Harvard at 28 — his home, a house occupied by Washington in 1775–76 — Charles Kingsley said of his face that it was the most beautiful he had ever seen — Poems noted for sweetness and purity — His courteous, pure, beautiful life the best poem of all — Died March 24, 1882 — The inheritance of his writings.

Exercise 23. — Prepare outline notes, as in § 71, and write a sketch of the life of one or more of these

AUTHORS.

William Shakespeare.	Ralph Waldo Emerson.
Sir Walter Scott.	James Russell Lowell.
Washington Irving.	John Greenleaf Whittier.
William Cullen Bryant.	Oliver Wendell Holmes.
Alfred Tennyson.	Nathaniel Hawthorne.

Exercise 24. — Study the life of **Joan of Arc** until you can write something more than is given in these notes.

Born 1412 — daughter of a peasant — could spin and sew, not read nor write — strong, beautiful, poetic, fond of adventure, of great piety. At 16 understood cause of war between France and England — resolved to deliver France. Friendless — poor — trained to horseback riding. Laughed at by the great — believed in by the common people. Persistent — approved by King — led many to battle — won victory. Accused of heresy — burned at stake.

Exercise 25. — After studying and comparing the lives of two persons prominent in history, **make an outline** and **write a sketch** of each life. Then write a comparison of their likenesses and differences. You may select from the following: —

Queen Elizabeth.
Mary Queen of Scots.
Victoria.
Alfred the Great.
Peter the Great.

Sir Walter Raleigh.
William E. Gladstone.
George Peabody.
Napoleon Bonaparte.
David Livingstone.

III. HISTORICAL SKETCHES.

72. Historical events are incidents in the life of a people or nation. They are parts of the story of the life of mankind; and the doings of the chief actors make up so large a part of history that a record of events is often little more than a sketch of the life of some prominent man.

Thus, a biographical sketch of Columbus necessarily includes a narrative of the "Discovery of a New World," and to tell of the "Conquest of Mexico" is to sketch the life of its conqueror, Hernando Cortez.

Exercise 26. — Prepare the outline and notes, and write a sketch of one of the following, or of any other distinguished man you may choose, so as to show the part he played in history.

Christopher Columbus.
Ferdinand de Soto.
Henry Hudson.
William Penn.

Hernando Cortes.
Francisco Pizarro.
Benedict Arnold.
Tecumseh.

73. Generally something like the following will serve best as an

OUTLINE FOR A HISTORICAL SKETCH.

- I. **Introduction.** The subject: why interesting or important.
- II. **Cause or Purpose.** What led to the event.
- III. **Time and Place.**
- IV. **Principal Actors,** and their relations to one another.
- V. **Details,** given in natural order.
- VI. **Effect** produced at the time.

VII. **Conclusion.** Thoughts or reflections on the event as a whole. Influence on the nation's life or future history.

(a) The writing of a good historical sketch, or, for that matter, of anything else, requires a clear knowledge of the subject, which must come from reading, study, and conversation. Note-taking is often helpful.

74. Outline and notes for a sketch of

BURGOYNE'S INVASION.

I. *Introduction.* Important event of Revolution. Its influence on the result.

II. *Object.* Plan to divide the country. Clinton going north from New York City, Burgoyne going south to meet him.

III. *Time, Place.* June–Oct., 1777. Canada; N.Y.; Vt.

IV. *Principal Actors.* Burgoyne, St. Leger, Baum; Schuyler, Gates, Stark. Duty of each.

V. *Details.* Route *via* Lake Champlain and the Hudson; 8000 men; English; Hessians; Indian allies. Expedition of St. Leger to Ft. Schuyler *via* St. Lawrence and Oswego (Oriskany), and of Col. Baum to Bennington. Both defeated. Capture of Fts. Ticonderoga, Crown Point, Edward. Two battles at Saratoga. Lost. Defeat; no retreat; no provisions. Surrender of army, Oct. 17, 6000 men.

VI. *Effect.* Americans encouraged. France acknowledged independence.

VII. *Conclusion.* Victory timely, as it followed defeats. Greatest influence in ending the war.

Exercise 27. — Prepare the outlines and write a **historical sketch** on "Burgoyne's Invasion," or on one of these subjects: —

The Discovery of America.

The Landing of the Pilgrims.

The Battle of Quebec.

The Boston Tea-party.

Battle of Lexington.

Battle of Bunker Hill.

Arnold's Treason.

Battle in Manila Bay.

The Burning of the Capitol.

The Firing on Sumter.

Battle of Gettysburg.

The Death of Lincoln.

The First Voyage of Columbus.

An Incident of the Revolution.

Our National Flag.

Naval Battle at Santiago (de Cuba).

Exercise 28. — Write a little **history** of the **State** in which you live.

Exercise 29. — Prepare an outline, and write a **brief history** of

Your native town.

The city in which you live.

The city of Washington.

New Orleans.

Cuba.

Chicago.

California.

Florida.

Texas.

CHAPTER VII.

DESCRIPTIVE WRITING.

75. In narratives about persons, we relate actions performed by them from time to time, and describe the circumstances in which they were placed. A narrative, then, is made up of short or long *descriptions* of deeds, persons, places, and things; and it is in the writing of *Descriptions* that we are to have special practice now.

Exercise 30. — Use each word appropriately in describing some object as to **size, weight, or height.** Thus :—

“ An *extensive* plain ; a *towering* cliff.”

large	light	gigantic	wide	puny
tiny	elevated	capacious	minute	extensive
thick	microscopic	vast	dwarfed	little
shallow	spacious	broad	delicate	deep
boundless	big	narrow	small	slight
great	thin	huge	high	lofty

Exercise 31. — Explain the **direction** of lines that are —

straight	wavy	vertical	radiating	perpendicular
curved	spiral	horizontal	convergent	zigzag
diagonal	slanting	parallel	oblique	intersecting

Exercise 32. — Explain the **form** of objects that are —

square	elliptical	cylindrical	plane	annular
rectangular	oval	conical	corrugated	tapering
oblong	convex	cubical	arched	slender
hexagonal	concave	prismatic	similar	pointed
octagonal	spherical	pyramidal	gibbous	stellated

Exercise 33.— Find one or more words that describe the form of —

vases	pipes	pencils	chimneys	horns
masts	stars	spokes	roads	leaves
eggs	needles	trunks	sheets	rainbows
coins	saws	lawns	barrels	saucers

Exercise 34.— Describe the following as to form, referring to Exercise 32 if you cannot think of the proper word. Thus:—

“A tin cup” has a *circular* base, with a *hollow, cylindrical* body. On its side a *flat, curved* handle.

a broom	a pin	a table-knife	a flute	a hoe
a slate	a river	a scythe	a chair	a bench
a lead-pencil	a spoon	a bell	a door	a bottle

Exercise 35.— 1. Use one or more of the words in the first list to describe each object named in the second list. Give the color when you can. Thus:—

“Chalk” is white, opaque, porous, and brittle.

WORDS THAT IMPLY QUALITIES.

transparent	lustrous	translucent	indelible	jointed
opaque	friable	fluid	sticky	plastic
porous	volatile	downy	fleecy	flexible
combustible	soluble	granular	slippery	fibrous
inflammable	elastic	smooth	brittle	gaseous

WORDS THAT NAME OBJECTS.

chalk	rubber	leather	paper	clay
sponge	molasses	bread	wood	milk
glass	flax	cotton	cement	steam
iron	gold	ice	coal	oil
sugar	wax	alcohol	kerosene	putty

Exercise 36.— Use one or more of the words in the *first* list in describing each object named in the *second* list.

IMPLYING QUALITIES.

sweet	spicy	odorous	tart	refreshing
acid	pungent	sour	insipid	juicy
bitter	astringent	aromatic	tasteless	crisp
palatable	fragrant	nutritious	edible	appetizing

NAMING OBJECTS.

ginger	alum	onions	water	melons
lemons	butter	coffee	vinegar	radishes
cloves	camphor	mustard	cologne	nuts
wine	beets	gravy	mint	fruits

Exercise 37. — Of what materials are the following made? —

cloth	chimneys	roofs	monuments	ropes
books	spoons	pitchers	pipes	images
rings	dimes	fences	tubes	mortar
pencils.	ink	buttons	dice	paste

Exercise 38. — 1. Name the parts of objects mentioned in Exercises 33 and 34.

2. Explain what part is indicated by each of these words: —

edge	spire	apex	knee	interior
slope	trunk	margin	crown	corner
branch	core	twig	base	calyx
root	crest	summit	gable	exterior
bark	arm	handle	petal	stalk
ridge	eaves	center	pinnacle	bottom

2. Select from this list all the words that might be used in describing — a tree — a flower — a house.

GENERAL DIRECTIONS.

76. A *description* should be so written as to produce a clear picture in the mind of the reader.

Observe carefully these *directions*: —

1. Learn all you can about what you are to describe: (a) By observation; (b) By experiment; (c) By reading and study; (d) By inquiry.

2. Do not try to write a description of an object unless you can see it or remember it distinctly.

3. After having gathered the material for your description,

arrange it in order according to one of the plans or outlines given.

4. Think every sentence carefully through before beginning to write it. Arrange what you say in separate paragraphs, according as it pertains to one or another branch of your subject.

5. Use no word or expression of which the meaning or the application is not clear to you.

6. Learn to select words that *exactly* describe the quality to which you wish to refer. Do not be too proud nor too lazy to use a dictionary.

7. Avoid in all your language, whether spoken or written, every *slang* expression, — not only because slang is vulgar, but also because it is a great hindrance to the growth of one's vocabulary.

8. Remember that you cannot become an easy and graceful writer or speaker without careful and constant practice, and do not be satisfied with the schoolroom exercises, if you have time to prepare additional papers to be shown to your teacher for criticism and correction.

I. DEFINITION-MAKING.

Exercise 39. — Define each of these objects *that you can see or remember clearly*, giving a short description of it that will distinguish it from everything else. Follow this plan as far as it will apply, giving —

1. Use. 2. Form. 3. Size. 4. Material. 5. Structure.

Thus : —

“ What is a window ? ” This window is an opening in the wall of a school-house for the admission of light and air. It is oblong in shape, and about six feet high by three feet wide. It is closed by two wooden sashes, each containing two panes of glass. The sashes are made to slide up and down, and they may be fastened by a catch attached to either sash.

a door	a brush	a newspaper	a railroad
a chimney	a table	a hammer	a wheelbarrow
a bottle	a scythe	a saw	a thermometer
a pencil	a star	a saw-horse	a buggy
a pen	a banjo	a carpet	a flower
a boat	a basket	a guide-post	a trunk
a pitcher	a hut	a clock	a safe
a rake	a boat	a watch	a nest
a pail	a stove	a piano	a barometer
a tent	a fence	a bridge	an engine

 II. COMPARISON AND CONTRAST.

77. In describing an object it is often a help to *compare* or *contrast* it with something better known,—showing how the two agree or differ in appearance, structure, qualities, use, value, and so on.

Exercise 40.—Compare the following with respect to (a) **Form**, (b) **Parts or Structure**, (c) **Use**.

- | | |
|----------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. A pin and a needle. | 8. A fence and a wall. |
| 2. A spoon and a fork. | 9. A watch and a clock. |
| 3. A shovel and a pickaxe. | 10. A leaf and a flower. |
| 4. A chair and a bed. | 11. A bolt and a lock. |
| 5. A pail and a box. | 12. A pocket and a purse. |
| 6. A sled and a boat. | 13. A fireplace and a stove. |
| 7. A cottage and a palace. | 14. A thermometer and a barometer. |

Exercise 41.—Compare the following as to their (a) **Appearance**, (b) **Qualities**, (c) **Use**, (d) **Value**.

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Coal and wood. | 7. Butter and cheese. |
| 2. Gold and iron. | 8. Cotton and wool. |
| 3. Wheat and tobacco. | 9. Leather and rubber. |
| 4. Cinnamon and cork. | 10. Oil and milk. |
| 5. Water and wine. | 11. Silk and flax. |
| 6. Pine and mahogany. | 12. Flour and honey. |

Exercise 42.— Compare the following with respect to their (a) **Size**, (b) **Parts**, (c) **Habits**, (d) **Value**.

- | | |
|---------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. Horse and cow. | 5. Wolf and lamb. |
| 2. Hen and duck. | 6. Fly and spider. |
| 3. Cat and dog. | 7. Frog and turtle. |
| 4. Horse and camel. | 8. Butterfly and humming-bird. |

Exercise 43.— Compare the following, showing, in an orderly way, points of **likeness** and of **difference**.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|--|
| 1. Two of your classmates. | 7. Lawn-tennis and base-ball. |
| 2. Summer and winter. | 8. City life and country life. |
| 3. A church and a jail. | 9. Travel by stage, by steamboat, and by railroad. |
| 4. A doctor and a clergyman. | 10. The advantages of wealth and of education. |
| 5. A farmer and a miner. | |
| 6. Boys' sports and girls' sports. | |

III. GENERAL DESCRIPTION.

Exercise 44.— Write as if for a friend who is at a distance and has never visited you a clear and vivid **description** of your *schoolhouse* and *schoolroom*.

1. Describe the *building*: (a) its location; whether pleasant, convenient, and so on. (b) Its surroundings; yard, trees, etc. (c) Its age, size, shape, material; architecture, whether plain or ornamental. (d) The entrances, stairways, corridors, arrangement of rooms, dressing-rooms, etc.

2. Describe your *room*: (a) In what part of the building. (b) Size, shape; doors, windows. (c) Furniture; seats, number, arrangement. (d) Walls, blackboards, maps, ornaments. (e) Such improvements as you can suggest.

Exercise 45.— In the same general way describe —

- | | |
|----------------------------------|--|
| 1. The church you attend. | 10. The largest public building in town. |
| 2. The house you live in. | 11. A railway car. |
| 3. Your sitting-room. | 12. A children's play-room. |
| 4. Your grandfather's home. | 13. A farmer's kitchen. |
| 5. A mill. | 14. A country store. |
| 6. The nearest railroad station. | 15. An old garret. |
| 7. A blacksmith's shop. | 16. The public library. |
| 8. The gymnasium. | 17. A day in a trolley-car. |
| 9. The ball-field. | |

Exercise 46.—Describe your **Desk** at school. Tell its form, materials, and arrangement of parts. Compare it with the old-fashioned desk you have heard your father tell about. Why do you like or dislike it? Imagine what people have sat there before you, and tell what some of them may be doing. Think how you will look back upon it in years to come.

2. Describe an Old-fashioned Chair.

Exercise 47.—Take for your subject —

1. My Garden. Tell its situation ; its form and size ; how inclosed ; how the beds are arranged ; what they contain ; just how you have managed it this year ; what you expect to gather or to raise ; what you can find in it to interest you if you will. Write simply and naturally, as you would talk to a friend.

- | | |
|--|----------------------------------|
| 2. What I see from my Piazza. | 11. A Game of Hide and Seek. |
| 3. What I see on my Way to School. | 12. Mowing the Lawn. |
| 4. The View from a Hill-top. | 13. The Tin Peddler. |
| 5. An Hour in the Woods. | 14. The Broken Axletree. |
| 6. Learning to swim. | 15. How the Moving was done. |
| 7. What the City Boy saw in the Country. | 16. On a Street Corner. |
| 8. Autumn Foliage. | 17. Scenes in an Electric Car. |
| 9. How the Coal was got into the Cellar. | 18. The Street Vender. |
| 10. The Organ-Grinder. | 19. Scenes at a Railway Station. |
| | 20. Harvesting our Crop. |

IV. GEOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTIONS.

78. The description of countries, cities, rivers, mountains, and of other natural or political divisions requires careful observation and inquiry, as well as reading and study. The order in which such subjects may be treated is shown by the following

OUTLINES.

I. *A City or Town.*

I. Situation. County and state or the like ; on or in sight of what shore, river, lake, mountain, railroad, or important city, — giving distance and direction.

II. Size. Area and population, compared with some other city or town. Variety of inhabitants.

III. Streets and Roads : Quality and direction. Principal means of approach and transportation.

IV. Buildings and Public Works: number and character. Library, post-office, court-house, churches, schoolhouses, park, bridges, monuments, etc. If a place of note, — the reason.

V. Leading Industry. Manufactures — what kind. Commerce — with what places. Agriculture — what products.

VI. Surroundings. Character of the suburbs ; natural scenery ; places of historic interest.

VII. History. Brief mention of specially interesting events, of remarkable growth and prosperity, or of disasters.

II. *A Country or State.*

I. Situation : in reference to the whole region ; to other states, etc.

II. Size. Area, or length and breadth, as shown by comparison. Population.

III. Physical Features. The coast, surface, mountains, rivers, lakes. The climate and soil.

IV. Products : (a) animal ; (b) vegetable ; (c) mineral.

V. Cities and Towns — the more important. For what noted.

VI. Trade and Manufactures. Imports, exports, and articles manufactured.

VII. People : race, nationality ; chief occupations ; character ; education ; religion ; government. Other matters of interest.

Exercise 48. — Following the general plan given above, describe —

1. The city or town in which you live.
2. One or more of the most important cities in the United States.
3. One or more of the following : —

London	Paris	Moscow	Rome	Dublin
Berlin	Birmingham	Tokio	Mexico	Florence
Liverpool	Edinburgh	Calcutta	Cairo	Vienna
Havana	Manila	Cape Town	Pekin	Hawaii

Exercise 49. — After collecting the necessary information from either persons or books, arrange it according to the preceding plan in —

1. A description of your **native state** or **country** ;
2. A description of one or more of the following : —

England	Scandinavia	Spain	Florida	Holland
New York	Italy	Chile	Greece	Mexico
France	Japan	Russia	Scotland	Australia
Brazil	China	Pennsylvania	Ireland	Java
Palestine	India	Egypt	Germany	California

V. DESCRIPTION OF NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL PRODUCTS.

79. Many *Natural Products* may be described with the help of such an outline as is here applied to —

*Iron.**

I. **Introduction.** The most useful and the most widely distributed of metals.

II. **Appearance.** A fibrous, dark gray metal — found mixed with other minerals — very bright when polished.

III. **Properties, etc.**

Heavy. Nearly eight times as heavy as water.

Hard. Especially in form of steel and cast-iron.

Brittle. Compare with glass and lead.

Fusible. Melts when subjected to great heat.

Malleable. May be beaten and rolled into sheets.

Elastic. When made into steel, the most elastic of metals.

Ductile. May be drawn into wire as fine as a hair.

IV. **Place where found or made.** Most common metal in every country. Most valuable mines in Pennsylvania, Great Britain, Sweden, Belgium. Of most value when near coal-mines. Why ?

V. **Methods of Obtaining or of Making.** Ore dug from mines — crushed — put in furnace and smelted — iron separated from slag — cooled in

* *To the Teacher.* — Exercises upon this and similar subjects should form the basis of several "Information Lessons."

form of pig-iron, or run into molds as cast-iron ; if a portion of the carbon is burned out (by Bessemer process) cast-steel is produced ; if nearly all is removed by heating and hammering, it becomes wrought-iron ; heated again by charcoal, and united with carbon, a fine quality of steel is produced.

VI. **Uses.** In all trades. Machinery, household utensils, ships, implements of war and husbandry, tools, bridges, building, cutlery, medicine, etc.

Exercise 50. — 1. Expand the preceding notes in a description of Iron.

2. Following an outline similar to the preceding, prepare a description of one or more of these products : —

Gold	Tin	Marble	Petroleum	Peat
Silver	Brass	Salt	Pearls	Mahogany
Lead	Nickel	Plumbago	Diamonds	Caoutchouc
Copper	Coal	Aluminum	Sponge	Cork

80. *Artificial products* or *Manufactured articles* may be described after the following plan : —

Glass.

I. **Introduction.** Well known in many ways, especially for its use in windows, when it began in the year 1180 to take the place of horn, mica, and oiled paper.

II. **Form or Qualities.** Transparent, smooth, brittle, fusible, ductile.

III. **Parts or Materials.** Sand, soda or potash, lime, and some oxides to give brilliancy or color.

IV. **Process of Manufacture.** Materials thoroughly mixed into a yellowish flour, called *frit*, and melted twenty-four hours in large pots set into a furnace. Allowed to cool until about as thick as paste, then taken by workmen.

Principal tool, the blowing-tube, an iron pipe five feet long, with wooden handle. Melted glass taken on end of tube, and blown into the required shape, or else rolled or molded. Cut-glass ware ground and polished after blowing.

V. **Kinds.** *Common* window-glass blown into form of hollow cylinder, then cut open and flattened. *Plate* glass made in plates, rolled, and polished. *Flint* glass made of finer materials, used for lenses.

VI. **Uses.** For windows, bottles, wares of all kinds, optical instruments, ornaments, etc.

VII. **Conclusion** — general remarks. Almost indispensable for many purposes, in the telescope, nothing to take its place.

Exercise 51. — 1. Write about **Glass**, use the foregoing outline and notes.

2. After properly arranging what you can learn about one or more of the following subjects, write an interesting description.

Thermometers	Paper	Cheese	Pins	Flour
Cotton Cloth	Leather	Silk	Alcohol	Starch
Gunpowder	Needles	Oil	Carpets	Vinegar
Barometers	Soap	Gas	A Book	Honey
A Wagon	Bread	Glue	Buttons	Candy
A Bicycle	Sugar	A Ship	Matches	A Shoe

VI. DESCRIPTION OF PROCESSES.

81. To tell how an article is made, or how anything is done, requires a thorough knowledge of the process and considerable skill in expression. We must—

- I. State the **object** of the process ; the difficulty, frequency of it, etc.
- II. Describe the **material** used ; the *tools*, *utensils*, and everything else required.
- III. Mention the **persons** engaged in the work.
- IV. Narrate the **details of the operation** from beginning to end, telling exactly what is done.

Exercise 52.— Take as a subject whichever of these processes you are familiar with, prepare an outline, and write a **description** of it.

- | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Setting a Table. | 11. Laying out a Base-ball Ground. |
| 2. Making a Bed. | 12. The Manufacture of Pottery. |
| 3. Harnessing a Horse. | 13. Printing a Newspaper. |
| 4. Making a Kite. | 14. Taking Care of Plants. |
| 5. Making an Apron. | 15. How to Play my Favorite Game. |
| 6. Getting Supper. | 16. How a Beaver Builds his House. |
| 7. Shoeing a Horse. | 17. The Care of a Canary. |
| 8. Building a House. | 18. Laying out a Tennis-court. |
| 9. Making Traps. | 19. The Coining of a Silver Dollar. |
| 10. Making Bricks. | 20. Making Cotton into Cloth. |

VIL. DESCRIPTION OF ANIMALS.

Exercise 53. — 1. From *what you already know* about **The Camel**, write as good a description as you can without making an outline.

2. Learn what you can about camels *from books and persons*, study the outline in § 82, and then follow it or add to it in re-writing your description.

82. In describing *an animal* we may follow an outline similar to that here applied to —

The Camel.

I. Introduction. The camel a large beast of burden ; famous as “ The Ship of the Desert. ”

II. Place where found: Arabia, Africa, Central Asia.

III. Size, Shape, and Covering. Eight feet high ; much larger than a horse ; ungainly ; humps (one or two) on back ; covered with rough, dark brown hair.

IV. Parts. *Head* small, like a sheep's, no horns ; *teeth* unlike those of most herbivorous animals—more like a dog's, and suited to tearing off twigs and shrubs ; *neck* long, no mane ; *body* bulky ; *legs* long, slender ; *knees* provided with a cushion ; *feet* broad, soft.

V. Food: thorny shrubs, date leaves, beans.

VI. Habits and Qualities. Chews the cud ; seldom needs water ; has great endurance ; patient, obedient, kneels for burden ; vicious towards its own kind.

VII. Uses. (a) Beast of burden : 300 pounds five or six miles an hour. (b) Its milk a favorite beverage. (c) Flesh salted for food. (d) Fat melted for butter. (e) Hair made into cloth.

VIII. Conclusion. Indispensable in long journey across deserts ; anecdotes, etc.

Exercise 54. — Write a description of one or more of the following, making an outline of what is important to be said.

Elephant	Beaver	Frog	Tiger	Horse
Lion	Crocodile	Spider	Raccoon	Cow
Bear	Fox	Bee	Sheep	Reindeer
Wolf	Whale	Silkworm	Butterfly	Cod

83. In describing *a bird* the outline below may be followed. In every case, when possible, the observation and study should be from the object itself.

Description of Birds.

I. Appearance: Form; size, actual and comparative; bill, length, how adapted for use; feet, size; toes, number, length, position, adaptation for mode of life.

II. Color: Above; below; distinguishing marking; differences between male and female; young.

III. Name: Significance of; by whom given; change in different localities; variety in one locality.

IV. Food: Kinds in summer, in winter; where and how obtained.

V. Nest: When built; where; by whom; material used; how made; size; shape; time required for building.

VI. Eggs: Number; color and markings; size; time of incubation.

VII. Young: Covering; food; time in nest; learning to fly.

VIII. Enemies: What; why to be feared.

IX. Song: Characteristics; when; birds having similar song.

X. Migration: When; where; why; routes; leaders.

XI. Value to man.

XII. Personal Observations.

XIII. Literature: Poems; quotations from prose.

Exercise 55.— In the same general way make a study and description of the following:

Woodpecker	Bobolink	Sparrow	Swallow
Jay	Mocking-bird	Chickadee	Blackbird
Oriole	Bluebird	Owl	Meadow-lark
Cedar-bird	Kingbird	Crow	Hawk

VIII. DESCRIPTION OF PLANTS.

Exercise 56.— Select some **plant**, either wild or cultivated, of which you know the looks and habits very well, and try to describe it. Remember the stem, branches, leaves, flowers, and fruit; the shape, size, and color of all the parts; when it starts, when it blossoms, when it dies, etc.

84. It is one thing *to be acquainted* with a plant, — to know how it grows, how it behaves, and how it differs from other plants in its stem, its leaves, its flowers, and its fruits. This comes only by the study of plants themselves.

It is quite another thing *to know of what use* a plant is to man, and what treatment it receives.

85. A general description of *a plant as producing something useful to man* may follow this

OUTLINE.

- I. **Use, Value** for food, clothing, building material, etc.
- II. **Place where found, and how discovered.** Native or naturalized ; wild or cultivated.
- III. **General Appearance:** height, size, trunk, bark, branches, foliage, flowers, fruit. Method of propagating.
- IV. **Part used.** Method of gathering or collecting it, and of preparing it for its final use.

Exercise 57. — After reading and asking questions, or after a conversation-lesson in school, make an outline, and give a general description of the plant from which we get

Flour	Sugar	Flax	Rubber	Mahogany
Rice	Cotton	Tea	Tobacco	Oranges
Corn	Coffee	Cork	Cocoa	Potatoes
Figs	Dates	Almonds	Bananas	Peanuts

IX. DESCRIPTION OF PERSONS.

86. It is easy to recognize a person, to distinguish him in a crowd, and to learn his ways ; but it is hard to convey clearly to others the means of picturing to themselves one whom they have not seen, or of understanding his character. We must do the best we can to describe truthfully the —

- I. **Figure.** Whether large, tall, stout, well-proportioned, or the opposite
- II. **Face.** *Features*, complexion, eyes, hair, etc.

III. Manners. Peculiarities of appearance, bearing, action, dress, and speech.

IV. Traits of Character. Disposition, habits, peculiar traits, mental power, source of reputation.

Exercise 58.—Describe, after making an outline, one or more of the following:—

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1. Your father | 9. An Indian |
| 2. Your most intimate friend | 10. The most peculiar person you know |
| 3. The family doctor | 11. A clergyman |
| 4. A baby | 12. An Englishman |
| 5. The oldest person you ever saw | 13. A Chinaman |
| 6. Yourself | 14. An Italian |
| 7. A tramp | 15. The ideal boy or girl |
| 8. A farmer | |

X. THE STUDY OF PICTURES.

87. The following outline and questions suggest one method of making and recording the study of a picture.

I. Story: Tell the story of this picture. Who wrote it? Is the artist an author? Name the characters in the order of their importance. Do you think of them separately or in connection with one another? Tell the connection between them.

II. Name: Do you wish to know the name of a story before or after reading it? Why? When do you enjoy knowing the name of a picture? What is the artist's name for this picture? Give other appropriate names.

III. Association: What does the picture suggest in connection with geography, history, literature, or mythology?

IV. Unity: Does the picture hold together well? Do you wish to remove anything from it or add anything to it? Have you seen a costume needing an extra touch to make it artistic? One whose effect would be more pleasing with something removed? Could you cut a chapter from any good book and leave the story complete? Could you remove any figure and not lose the completeness of the picture? Where is the center of interest? How do you locate it? What lines in the picture direct your eyes to it?

V. Balance: Where is the greatest weight? What balances it? Try

cutting a piece from the right, left, top, or bottom of the picture and notice the result. Is the balance obtained by contrast, spacing, or weight?

VI. **Artist:** Give an account of the artist's life? Name his principal works. What connection can you see between his own life and the subjects of his pictures? What is his rank as an artist? When did his works become appreciated?

Exercise 59.— Write a description of one of the following in accordance with previous suggestions.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. Lerolle's "By the River." | 8. Turner's "The Old Temeraire." |
| 2. Guido Reni's "Aurora." | 9. Van Dyck's "Repose in Egypt." |
| 3. Millet's "The Gleaners"; "Angelus." | 10. Rembrandt's "The Mill." |
| 4. Raphael's "Sistine Madonna." | 11. Corot's "Spring"; "Dance of the Nymphs." |
| 5. Raphael's "Madonna of the Chair." | 12. Sargent's "Prophets." |
| 6. Rosa Bonheur's "Horse Fair." | 13. Breton's "End of Labor." |
| 7. Hoffman's "Christ and the Doctors." | 14. Landseer's "Member of the Humane Society." |

CHAPTER VIII.

CHOICE OF WORDS.

88. Incorrect forms of expression often result from ignorance, but more frequently from carelessness. The former may sometimes be excusable, the latter never is. Nothing is harder to break up than a bad habit of speech. Extreme care from the outset, not alone in the schoolroom but on the playground, at home, in the street, is needed to correct it. Some common errors are here pointed out, but there are many others which should be the object of constant criticism and correction.

 A. WRONG WORDS.

89. *Incorrect Forms. Avoid all improper forms and words not in good use.*

Say —

gentlemen or men, not *gents* ;
 trousers, not *pants* ;
 advertisement, not *ad* ;
 gloves, not *kids* ;
 spectacles, not *specs* ;
 thank you, not *thanks* ;
 those things, not *them* things ;
 at home, not *to* home ;
 at once, not *to* once ;
 nowhere, not *nowheres* ;
 yours, not *yourn* ;
 he *did* it, not he *done* it ;

I'm not, not *I ain't* ;
 he *isn't*, not he *ain't* ;
they're not, not *they ain't* ;
haven't, not *hain't* ;
 I *say* or *said* I, not *says* I ;
as lief, not *just as lives* ;
drowned, not *drownded* ;
attacked, not *attackted* ;
preventive, not *preventative* ;
unknown, not *unbeknown* ;
blew, *threw*, *knew*, etc.,
 not *blowed*, *throwed*, *knowed*, etc.

90. Unnecessary Words. *Do not use words that are not needed to express the thought clearly.*

For example; *got* implies action, and should not be used with *have* to show simple possession, as in — We have *got* ten fingers.

Exercise 60. — **1. Relieve** the following sentences of all needless words or expressions: —

1. I have not got any money left. 2. My friend got badly hurt yesterday. 3. A widow woman called to see you. 4. From whence came they? 5. Smell of these flowers. 6. Taste of this fruit. 7. You had ought to read more. 8. I can never find no time. 9. You have stood up too long: sit down a while. 10. He has lost one-half of his money. 11. Put the vase up on to the shelf. 12. From hence we infer his inability. 13. This fact is universally known by all. 14. Payment must be made by the latter end of the month. 15. You hadn't ought to use any unnecessary words. 16. Where have you been to? 17. Had I have known it, I should have gone also. 18. Edward and James they both went. 19. A strait connects them together.

2. Point out the superfluous words, and show why they are unnecessary.

1. He is equally as anxious as you. 2. Cover the plants over. 3. I shall always distrust him whenever he speaks. 4. The journey will require three weeks' time. 5. Keep off of the grass. 6. This evidence is wonderful and surprising. 7. You cannot give to a more worthier object. 8. He may probably go, but he cannot possibly succeed. 9. He was filled with unbounded admiration. 10. I shall first begin by showing the defects, and then afterwards I shall finish by showing the excellences of the system. 11. He abhorred and detested the idea of being in debt. 12. The funeral obsequies were largely attended. 13. I was just going to go. 14. You do very well for a new beginner. 15. The fort was completely surrounded on all sides by the enemy. 16. What you say is very true. 17. Thank those who are co-workers together.

91. Words confounded. *Avoid the use of one word for another somewhat like it in form or pronunciation.*

For example: distinguish carefully in the use of

Except, *to leave out* and of
Affect, *to act upon, to influence,* and of
Love, *to regard with affection,* and of
Lay, *reclined,* and of
Sat, *took a seat,* and of
Learn, *to acquire knowledge,* and of

accept, *to receive, to agree to;*
effect, *to produce, to accomplish;*
like, *to be pleased with, to enjoy;*
laid, *placed* [see § 512];
set, *placed;*
teach, *to give instruction.*

Exercise 61. — Fill the blanks with the appropriate word selected from the preceding list.

1. Please — my thanks for your kindness. 2. How was he — by the news? 3. You cannot — so wicked a purpose. 4. I — good music. 5. Will you — me to play chess? 6. Do you — easily? 7. Have you ever — up all night? 8. He — it away in his safe. 9. He — in bed until noon. 10. I — my neighbors, but I do not — them. 11. His troubles have — his mind. 12. I cannot — your invitation. 13. She has — down to rest.

Exercise 62. — 1. From the dictionary learn the difference in meaning between the words in each of the following pairs :

1. Prescribe, proscribe; 2. proceed, precede; 3. precise, concise; 4. statue, statute; 5. species, specie; 6. respectively, respectfully; 7. expect, suspect; 8. convince, convict; 9. lightning, lightening; 10. fly, flee; 11. liniment, lineament; 12. ingenious, ingenuous; 13. stationery, stationary.

2. Use words from the *first three pairs* to complete these sentences :

1. What did the physician — ? 2. In what order did they — to the temple? 3. She was very — in her manners. 4. What you write must be —. 5. The band — the regiment.

3. Use each of the remaining words in a sentence or phrase, to show that you can discriminate between them.

Exercise 63. — Tell the difference in the meanings of these words, and use each word in a sentence :

1. Missives, missiles; 2. emigrants, immigrants; 3. perjury, forgery; 4. diseased, deceased; 5. prospective, retrospective; 6. luxurious, luxuriant; 7. equity, iniquity; 8. retaliate, reciprocate; 9. principal, principle; 10. rout, route; 11. propose, purpose; 12. contemptible, contemptuous; 13. complement, compliment; 14. human, humane.

COMMON ERRORS IN THE CHOICE OF WORDS.

92. *Avoid the use of* —

Above for *more than*; as in "I was gone *above* a week."

Aggravate for *irritate* or *provoke*; as in "The delay *aggravated* me."

Aggravate means "make worse."

Any for *at all*; as in "He cannot walk *any*."

- Apt** for *likely* or *liable*; as in "Where shall I be *apt* to find it?" "You will be *apt* to stumble."
- Back** for *ago*; as in "This occurred sometime *back*."
- Bad** for *ill* or *sick*; as in "He is very *bad* to-night."
- Balance** for *rest* or *remainder*; as in "He spent the *balance* of his vacation in Europe."
- Between** for *among*. We should say "*between* two things," but "*among* more than two."
- Both** used with *alike*; as in "They are *both* alike."
- Bound** for *determined*; as in "The prisoner was *bound* to be free."
- Can** for *may*; as in "Can I close the window?" which means "Am I able to close it?"
- Consider** for *think* or *suppose*; as in "I *consider* him honest."
- A Couple of** for *two*; as "A *couple* of men."
- Dangerous** for *in danger*; as in "My father is sick, but not *dangerous*."
- Died with** for *died of*; as in "He died *with* consumption."
- Depot** for *station*; as in "The train is at the *depot*."
- Different than** for *different from*; as in "Mine is *different than* yours."
- Done** for *did*; as in "He *done* it quickly." We should say, "He *did* it," or "He *has done* it."
- Don't** for *doesn't*; as in "He *don't* talk correctly."
- Each other** must be used in speaking of two, and **one another** in speaking of more than two; as in "The twins loved *each other*." "The quartette were jealous of *one another*."
- Expect, guess, or reckon** for *suppose* *presume*, *suspect*, or *think*; as in "I *expect* he left town yesterday." "I *guess* he will go."
- Female** for *woman*, **males** for *men*; as in "Apartments for *females*."
- Fewer** refers to *number*, **less** to *quantity*. We should say, "It will require *fewer* days and *less* money."
- Healthy** for *wholesome*; as in "Milk is *healthy* for children."
- Hung** for *hanged*. Pictures are *hung*, men are sometimes *hanged*.
- Hurry up** for *make haste*.
- Lady** for *madam* or *woman*; as in "What will you have, *lady*?" "She is a good *lady*." "They are *salesladies*."
- Lay** for *lie*; as in "*Lay* down, Bruno!"
- Leave** for *let*; as in "*Leave* it alone!"
- Like** for *as*; as in "He did it *like* I do it." "Speak *like* I do."
- Mad** for *vezed*, *provoked*, or *angry*.
- Most** for *almost*; as in "He comes *most* every day."
- Nicely** for *well*; as in "How do you do?" "I'm *nicely*."
- On to** for *upon*; as in "Get *on to* the table."

Partially for *partly*; as in "The work is *partially* done."

Party for *person*; as in "Who was the *party* you met?"

Plenty for *plentiful*; as in "Money is *plenty*."

Posted or booked up for *informed*; as in "He is thoroughly *posted*."

"Book yourself up on that subject."

Quantity refers to what is *measured*, *number* to what are *counted*. We should say "a *quantity* of beans, a *number* of brooms."

Quite a must not be used for a *considerable*, a *great*, a *large*; as in "*Quite* a number; *quite* a display." What does *quite* mean?

Raised for *reared*; as in "I was *raised* in Vermont."

Real for *really* or *very*; as in "*real* pleasant, *real* cold."

Some for *somewhat*; as "He is *some* weaker to-day."

Stop for *stay*; as in "I shall *stop* in Washington a month."

These or those must not be used with *sort* or *kind*; as in "*those* kind,"

"*these* sort." Say *that* or *this*.

Transpire for *occur* or *happen*; as in "The event *transpired* in 1776."

Try for *make*; as in "*Try* the experiment."

Try and for *try to*; as in "*Try and* lift this weight."

Was must never be used with *we*, *you*, or *they* as subject, as in "Where *was* you?"

Exercise 64. Correct such sentences in the preceding section as are wrong. Try and explain *why* they are wrong.

Exercise 65. Point out what you can correct or improve, and read each sentence as it should be.

1. Chestnuts are very plenty this year. 2. The trains collided together near the depot. 3. Quite a number were severely hurt. 4. Several have since died with their injuries. 5. I expect that the switchman was careless. 6. Mr. Dickens stopped at the Parker House, on School Street. 7. There are half a dozen histories, and it is very difficult to choose between them. 8. Their authors differ from each other on minor points. 9. The machine is partially done, but the inventor has been so busy trying experiments that he has not worked any this week. 10. Most any one can afford to pay a couple of dollars for a real fine copy like this.

11. The wounded man is some better, but the doctor still considers him dangerous. 12. There were less males than females in the audience. 13. Where shall I be liable to find the author? 14. His injury is a bad one, and will prevent his working for the balance of the year. 15. Where was you when he done it? 16. Both the brothers look just alike. 17. I guess you have made less mistakes than I. 18. Are you posted on these sort of things? 19. Won't you try and not make a noise?

93. Exaggerations. *Discriminate carefully in the choice of descriptive words, avoiding all inappropriate or exaggerated or "slang" expressions.*

It is useless to try to describe all kinds of things by such words as "nice," "lovely," "awful," "splendid," or "perfectly immense"; find some other adjective that will express your meaning exactly, and remember that it is no disgrace to speak good English everywhere.

Exercise 66. 1 Substitute for the italicized words suitable descriptive expressions.

1. *Nice* weather; a *nice* picture; *nice* clothes; a *nice* man; a *nice* lecture; a *nice* ride; *nice* music; a *nice* plan. 2. An *awful* pen; *awful* good, *awfully* pretty; *awfully* dear; *awfully* slow. 3. *Splendid* pudding; *splendid* entertainment; a *perfectly splendid* sermon. 4. This sidewalk is *just too lovely* for anything. 5. The delay was *disgusting*. 6. What a *pretty* steamship! 7. Those shoes are an *immense* fit. 8 I *just adore* caramels. 9. I *hate* long stories. 10. The coffee seems *mighty* weak. 11. What a *horrid* mistake! 12. A *perfectly lovely* salad.

2. Use correctly in sentences: nice, awful, horrid, splendid, lovely, disgusting.

3. Select five words that may correctly describe a brook, a speech, music, Niagara falls, a mountain path.

94. Wrong Order of Words. *Arrange the parts of a sentence so that it may convey as clearly as possible just the meaning intended.*

Exercise 67. Try to improve the arrangement of the words in the following expressions, and explain why changes are needed.

1. For sale: soft men's hats, black ladies' gloves, and leggings for children with or without feet. 2. We came very near being killed more than once. 3. He bought a new pair of gloves. 4. Carpets and clothes beaten and washed. 5. All rivers are not so swift. 6. Solve the next example to the end but one. 7. I should like to visit you very much. 8. I only recite in the morning. 9. I heard all you said very distinctly. 10. A fine view was obtained from the upper story of Niagara Falls. 11. Mrs. James only has one child. 12. I have been trying to have my watch repaired every day this week. 13. I never expect to be any taller than I am now. 14. Try to always put adverbs in their proper place.

95. *Double meaning.* Construct sentences so as to avoid all ambiguous statements.

Exercise 68. Reconstruct each of these sentences so that it shall have only one meaning :

1. Ask how old Mrs. Jones is. 2. What I want is common sense. 3. The judge told the lawyer that he was not an authority. 4. I have not heard from one of my friends. 5. She has given me more than you. 6. My friend's father died while he was in Europe. 7. I promised her mother that I would call upon her sister. 8. I had just met my partner a ruined man. 9. We met the same horse tramping through the snow in our rubber boots.

B. SYNONYMS.

96. We often find several words nearly alike in meaning, each one of which we must learn to use in its proper place. Such words are called *Synonyms*. Thus :

Ancient, old, aged, elderly, antiquated, are synonyms, for, in a general way, they have the same meaning ; but we say "ancient customs," "old trees," "aged or elderly persons," "antiquated fashions,"

97. *Synonyms are words that have the same or nearly the same meaning.*

Exercise 69.—1. Separate the following words into five groups, each containing five synonyms.

2. Use the words of each group in expressions that will illustrate their meaning. Thus :

"A plot to rob the bank" ; "the arrangement of words" ; "a scheme for raising money" ; "a conspiracy to assassinate the king."

plot	misfortune	grand	beautiful	reduce
diminish	scheme	calamity	superb	free
liberal	decrease	plan	disaster	magnificent
splendid	generous	abate	conspiracy	catastrophe
mishap	gorgeous	lavish	lessen	arrangement

Exercise 70.—1. Find at least one or two **synonyms** for each of these words :

Busy ; bold ; honest ; counterfeit ; obscure ; barren ; appease ; cheerful ; dead ; larceny ; defeat ; certain ; collect ; death ; frighten ; censure ; frank ; famous ; obstinate ; spacious.

2. Give one or two words that are **opposite in meaning** to each of the foregoing.

Exercise 71.—Read each phrase, substituting **synonyms** for the italicized words.

1. *Inspid* fruit. 2. *Gnarled* oak. 3. *Relentless* foes. 4. *Chaplet* of flowers. 5. *Sepulchers* of kings. 6. *Auspicious* omens. 7. Debtors' *assets*. 8. *Martial* music. 9. *Voluntary* offering. 10. A *gluttonous* fellow. 11. *Waning* power. 12. *Obsequies* of a ruler. 13. *Imprudent* methods. 14. *Infallible* signs. 15. *Indelible* impressions. 16. Merchants' *liabilities*. 17. Raleigh's *explorations*. 18. *Frugal* habits. 19. *Brutal* actions. 20. *Benevolent* feelings.

Exercise 72.—What is the **difference** between—

a <i>lazy</i> boy	and an <i>idle</i> boy ;
a <i>large</i> man	and a <i>great</i> man ;
a <i>large</i> gift	and a <i>generous</i> gift ;
what one <i>wants</i>	and what one <i>needs</i> ;
he <i>hopes</i>	and he <i>expects</i> ;
a <i>trade</i>	and an <i>occupation</i> ;
what is <i>fragrant</i>	and what is <i>odorous</i> ;
<i>peeling</i> fruit	and <i>paring</i> fruit ;
a <i>street</i>	and a <i>road</i> ;
an <i>angry</i> man	and a <i>mad</i> man ;
an <i>indignant</i> man	and an <i>angry</i> man.

Exercise 73.—Study the words in each of the following pairs till you think that you understand the meaning of them. Then use each of the words so as to show that you can discriminate between them.

1. That is **healthful** which *gives* health ; that is **healthy** which *has* health.
2. **To remember** is to call to mind readily ; **to recollect** is to recall with effort. We can sometimes recollect what we do not remember.
3. **Habit** is the result of **custom**. What is *customary* soon grows to be *habitual*.
4. A man's **reputation** depends on what he *appears* to be ; his **character** is what he really *is*.

5. **Brave** and **courageous** men do their duty, even though suffering from fear or disapproval ; **bold** and **reckless** men neither fear nor care.

6. **Crimes** are offenses against law ; **sins** are offenses against the right.

7. We **convince** a man by argument ; we **persuade** him by advice and entreaty.

Exercise 74. — Explain the **difference in meaning** between the words of each pair. Thus :

Do not say " I *guess* so " if you know enough about the subject to say " I *think* so " or " I *presume* so " or " I *suppose* so. "

Mountains and clouds are *high* ; masts and trees are *tall*.

- | | | |
|-------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. high, tall ; | 4. silent, quiet ; | 7. pardon, forgive ; |
| 2. glance, look ; | 5. economical, stingy ; | 8. kill, murder ; |
| 3. tomb, grave ; | 6. hear, understand ; | 9. see, notice, observe. |

Exercise 75. — **Discriminate** between the words in each pair, and **use** them in sentences.

- | | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. love, like ; | 4. bring, fetch ; | 7. believe, think ; |
| 2. export, transport ; | 5. bear, carry ; | 8. frugal, miserly ; |
| 3. follow, pursue ; | 6. discover, invent ; | 9. education, learning. |

Exercise 76. — **Answer these questions** in complete sentences, whether you use synonyms or not :

1. Why is food called *nutritious* ? *palatable* ? *indigestible* ?
2. Why is a man called *mercenary* ? *magnanimous* ?
3. What is the difference between an *art* and a *science* ?
4. Explain why an occurrence is called *annual* ; *semi-annual* ; *biennial* ; *triennial* ; *centennial* ; *bi-centennial*.
5. What is a *sedentary* occupation ? a *lucrative* one ?
6. What is *official* information ? an *officious* person ?
7. Tell how a *speech*, a *lecture*, a *sermon*, an *oration*, and a *eulogy* differ from one another.
8. What is it for one to be *lenient* ? *diffident* ?
9. What is a *loquacious* man ? a *taciturn* man ?
10. When is one's conduct *exemplary* ? *decorous* ? *despicable* ? *noble* ? *immoral* ? *vicious* ?

Exercise 77. — **Answer these questions** thus :

" A *just* decision is one that is fair to all parties concerned. "

" *Authentic* reports are such as come from a reliable source. "

1. What is a—

1. *just* decision? 2. *salubrious* climate? 3. man of *veracity*? 4. *veracious* statement? 5. *voracious* animal? 6. *majority* of five? 7. *minority* of three? 8. *ambiguous* remark? 9. *mortal* wound? 10. *plurality* of seven?

2. What are—

1. *sanguinary* battles? 2. *pugnacious* people? 3. *contemporaneous* events? 4. *tyrannical* rulers? 5. *arbitrary* rules? 6. *maritime* countries? 7. *hospitable* persons? 8. *authentic* reports? 9. *junior* partners? 10. *candid* views.

Exercise 78.—Explain clearly what it is to—

1. *mortgage* a farm. 2. *deed* the land. 3. *resign* an office. 4. *counsel* delay. 5. *execute* the laws. 6. *commute* a sentence. 7. read *responsively*. 8. ask for *clemency*. 9. go with *alacrity*. 10. *excavate* a cellar. 11. *fumigate* a house. 12. *embezzle* money. 13. prove *inefficient*. 14. *feign* sickness. 15. *retract* a statement. 16. *foreclose* a mortgage. 17. *endorse* a note. 18. *condone* a crime. 19. *acquit* a prisoner. 20. *exterminate* a tribe. 21. *forge* a signature. 22. *forge* an anchor.

Exercise 79.—Substitute single words for the italicized expressions.

1. I went *of my own accord*. 2. *Old soldiers*. 3. It can be done *without difficulty*. 4. Go to *that place* | *without a moment's delay*. 5. Men of *wisdom* interpret the laws of nature. 6. A man *without money* and *without friends*. 7. The statement *cannot be denied*. 8. My labors are *of no utility*. 9. Were the proceedings *according to law*? 10. We were *wet to the skin*. 11. A man *worthy of esteem*. 12. Facts *not to be disputed*. 13. A river *that cannot be forded*. 14. An attack *that could not be resisted*. 15. He saw several mummies *that were found in Egypt*. 16. With a *rapidity that cannot be conceived*.

Exercise 80.—Substitute words or expressions as synonyms for the italicized words.

1. *Prepare* your lessons. 2. *Honor* your parents. 3. The *thief* was caught. 4. He spoke *excitedly*. 5. *Peacefully* slept the weary children. 6. A *furious* gale was raging. 7. A few *dilapidated* old buildings still stand in the *deserted* hamlet. 8. We *urged* his going. 9. The Nile overflows *once a year*. 10. Much *fatigued* we reached the end of our journey. 11. *Farming* is a *pleasant* occupation. 12. There is no cause *sacred enough* to justify a violation of the truth. 13. We *resolved* to make the attempt in *spite* of all *difficulties*. 14. The *prisoners* were *condemned* and *executed*. 15. The *stock* was *watered*. 16. She was *the one who inherited* her uncle's wealth. 17. We awoke *as soon as the sun rose*. 18. What *ought* I to do? 19. After *the sun had gone down*, we resumed the journey that to some of us seemed *without end*.

Exercise 81.—Substitute sentences of equivalent meaning.

1. The *opposing forces* stood in *battle array*. 2. The supply *constantly increases*. 3. Plants are the *habitations* of insects. 4. They *traversed* the *lofty* mountains that *surround* this beautiful *region*. 5. The *majority* of *man-kind* earn their *livelihood* by *hard work*. 6. The army was *animated* by the spirit of its *leader*. 7. Sailors *encounter* constant *perils*. 8. The *intelligence* was brought by a *courier*. 9. Our *liberties* were not *secured* without a *struggle*.

Exercise 82 (a).—Substitute simpler or more appropriate expressions for those that are italicized.

1. He *resides in an elegant mansion*. 2. The barn was *consumed by the devouring element*. 3. We *attended divine service*. 4. He *was cut down by the scythe of Time*. 5. She was *ushered into existence* in Maine. 6. The streams are *bound by winter's icy chain*. 7. The ice broke, and the boy was *launched into eternity*. 8. We were *conveyed to the dearest spot on earth* in an express wagon. 9. Crowds *congregated to witness* the race. 10. *Divest yourself of your outer habiliments*, and stay with us. 11. There were some *gorgeously appareled members of the gentler sex* present. 12. *Immediately upon our establishment in the hostelry we partook of a sumptuous repast*.

Exercise 82 (b).—It may not be possible to find exact synonyms for all of the following words. Find several words or expressions that are related in their meaning to each of the following :—

exact	alter	speed
exchange	maintain	frosty
prudent	origin	look
find	strength	certain
taciturn	savage	inquiry
frighten	dominate	deny
future	concur	error
veteran	occupant	ignorant
evening	size	culpable
procrastinate	orifice	sagacious
aged	journey	insane
ambush	docile	veracity
banner	necessary	obstinate
ample	hinder	request

CHAPTER IX.

PARAPHRASING.

98. We have learned that there are *right* ways and *wrong* ways of saying what we mean, but we know that in telling a story no two persons would use precisely the same words and expressions, though the language of both might be excellent.

Almost any idea can be well expressed in various ways. Thus : —

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| (1) My gown is golden yellow | (3) My dress is as yellow as gold. |
| (2) In color my gown resembles gold. | (4) My dress is of a golden hue. |

So instead of (1) "It is a dark day," we may write —

- | | |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| (2) The sky is overcast. | (5) There isn't a ray of sunshine. |
| (3) A vast cloud obscures the sun. | (6) A dark day this. |
| (4) What gloomy weather ! | (7) Isn't this a cheerless day ? |

Exercise 83.— Change the following sentences in as many ways as you can, trying to express the thought fully and accurately in **different language**. Thus : —

"He speaks the truth." He tells no lies. He is truthful. He is a man of his word.

1. He speaks the truth.
2. He is patriotic.
3. He is faithful.
4. This book interests me.
5. Do I trouble you ?
6. He neglects his business.
7. It is not needed.
8. The thief does not fear punishment.
9. These birds migrate.
10. The earth was first circumnavigated by one of Magellan's ships.
11. My impression differs from yours.
12. Do not squander your time.
13. Never put off till to-morrow what ought to be done to-day.
14. Our doubts were presently dispelled.
15. Robert Fulton, who invented the steam-boat, died prematurely from poverty and toil.
16. No man is entirely free from foibles.
17. "Take Time by the forelock ; he is bald behind."

99. When we thoroughly change the *form* in which a thought has been expressed, without much changing the meaning, we make a *Paraphrase*.

100. Practice in paraphrasing should enable us to vary our forms of expression, to speak with greater precision, to choose the best form of all, and to extend our knowledge of words and of their meanings.

Exercise 84.—1. Write each sentence five times, **varying the order of words.**

1. Prepare, my friends, in time of peace for war.
2. Soon a rocky mass mixed with snow came rattling down.
3. Nobody but you, I think, was here after the war.
4. "Your hand," cried the girl suddenly, as her foot slipped.

2. **Change and Condense** into *four* sentences, — then into *three*:

- (1) I was in a swamp. The year was 1875. It was May. I was lost.
 (2) The water was deep. It was cold. Dead trees filled it. My clothes were torn. Brambles caused it. (3) I wandered long. Then the ground was drier. The light increased. I was out.
-

TRANSFORMATION OF POETRY INTO PROSE.

101. One may acquire skill in the use of language by trying to turn poetry into prose.

Poetry is noticeably different from prose; for, —

- (1) It has *meter* and *rhythm* * and *rhymes*.
- (2) The order of the words is often *inverted*;
- (3) Many of its words and phrases are *not used in prose*;
- (4) It often contains many *figurative expressions* and *peculiar constructions*.

* *To the Teacher.* — The meaning of rhythm, or the division of verse into lines, couplets, stanzas, etc., and that of meter, or the regular arrangement of accented and unaccented syllables, should be clearly exemplified to the class at the outset.

102. In changing poetry to prose, we are not to change the meaning: we are rather to express the ideas, as well as we can, in the simple, straightforward language of prose or of conversation.

To do this, we must generally, —

(1) *Change the order of the words.* Thus —

“Bent is his head with age, and red his tearful eye,” becomes, —
His head is bent with age, and his eyes are red with weeping.

(2) *Substitute prosaic for poetic words.* As —

Often for oft, evening for eve, against for 'gainst, etc.

(3) *Conceal the rhymes and the meter, or measured step of the words, either by rearrangement or by the use of synonyms.*
Thus: —

“A man he was to all the country dear,
And passing rich with forty pounds a year,” becomes, —

He was a man whom everybody loved, and his annual income of forty pounds made him surpassingly rich.

(4) Sometimes we must *form new sentences with changes in punctuation.*

Exercise 85. — Make the order of words in the following selections the same that it would be in prose, and conceal all the rhymes: —

1. “Few and short were the prayers we said.”
2. “There purple grows the primrose pale.”
3. “The highest meed of praise he well deserves.”
4. “From labor health, from health contentment springs.”
5. “‘I’ve lost a day,’ — the prince who nobly cried,
Had been an emperor without his crown.”
6. “That mercy I to others show,
That mercy show to me.”
7. “Of joys departed
Not to return, how painful the remembrance.”

8. "Vessels large may venture more,
But little boats should keep near shore."
9. "By fairy hands their knell is rung ;
By forms unseen their dirge is sung."
10. "Stone walls do not a prison make,
Nor iron bars a cage."
11. "For 'tis a truth well known to most,
That whatsoever thing is lost,
We seek it, ere it comes to light,
In every cranny but the right."

Exercise 86.— Transform the following selections so as to make them sound like ordinary prose :—

1. "He is not poor that little hath, but he that much desires."
2. "Of all wit's uses the main one
Is to live well with who has none."
3. "What you keep by you, you may change and mend,
But words once spoke can never be recalled."
4. "Bear through sorrow, wrong, and ruth,
In the heart the dew of youth,
On thy lips the smile of truth."
5. "Sweet is the pleasure itself cannot spoil !
Is not true leisure one with true toil ?"
6. "Three poets in three distant ages born,
Greece, Italy, and England did adorn :
The first in gracefulness of thought surpassed ;
The next in majesty ; in both, the last."

Exercise 87.— Transform the following into prose ; try to conceal the meter.

1. "I watch the mowers as they go
Through the tall grass, a white-sleeved row ;
With even stroke their scythes they swing,
In tune their merry whetstones ring."
2. "In the country, on every side,
Where far and wide,
Like a leopard's tawny and spotted hide,
Stretches the plain,
To the dry grass and the drier grain
How welcome is the rain !"

3. "I saw a farmer plow his land, who never came to sow ;
I saw a student filled with truth, to practice never go ;
In land or mind I never saw the ripened harvest grow."
4. "Do thou thy work ; it shall succeed
In thine or in another's day ;
And if denied the victor's meed,
Thou shalt not miss the toiler's pay."

Exercise 88.— (a) **Paraphrase** the following selections :—

1. "Let us then be up and doing, with a heart for any fate."
2. "To swear is neither brave, polite, nor wise."
3. "A thing of beauty is a joy forever."
4. "How blessings brighten as they take their flight."
5. "Into each life some rain must fall."
6. "Never make your ear the grave of another's good name."
7. "Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and a few are to be chewed and digested."
8. "The rank is but the guinea's stamp,
The man's the gold for all that !"
9. "The bravest trophy ever man obtained
Is that which o'er himself is gained."
10. "If little labor, little are our gains ;
Man's fortunes are according to his pains."

(b) **Paraphrase** the following proverbs. You will have to make longer sentences.

1. Handsome is that handsome does. 2. Procrastination is the thief of time. 3. A stitch in time saves nine. 4. Nothing venture, nothing have. 5. Constant dropping wears away the hardest stone. 6. Where there is a will, there is a way. 7. Time is money. 8. A penny saved is a penny earned.

9. Haste makes waste. 10. Honesty is the best policy. 11. Actions speak louder than words. 12. Birds of a feather flock together. 13. An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure. 14. Hunger is the best sauce. 15. Empty your purse into your head, and no man can take it from you, 16. There is always room at the top.

CHAPTER X.

STUDY OF LITERATURE.

103.

[To the Teacher.—The following selections, together with others given elsewhere, may be used (1) to stimulate an appreciative taste for good literature, and (2), by the use of suitable models, to give skill in expression.

As a help towards the first aim the selection may well be made the basis of several lessons. Questions, comment, explanation, the use of reference books, the interchange of thought and inquiry in the class, the study of allusions and figures of speech, — all will contribute towards an understanding and an appreciation of the meaning and the beauty of the selection. To further the second object the selection may be used for the study of structure and for parsing and analysis. The questions given are merely suggestive. Many others should follow.]

ABOU BEN ADHEM.

Abou Ben Adhem (may his tribe increase !)
 Awoke one night from a deep dream of peace,
 And saw within the moonlight of his room,
 Making it rich, and like a lily in bloom,
 An angel writing in a book of gold.
 Exceeding peace had made Ben Adhem bold,
 And, to the presence in the room, he said,
 "What writest thou?" The vision raised its head,
 And, with a look made of all sweet accord,
 Answered, "The names of those who love the Lord!"
 "And is mine one?" asked Abou. "Nay, not so,"
 Replied the angel. Abou spake more low,
 But cheerly still; and said, "I pray thee, then,
 Write me as one that loves his fellow-men."
 The angel wrote and vanished. The next night
 It came again, with a great wakening light,
 And showed the names whom love of God had blest;
 And lo! Ben Adhem's name led all the rest!

— Leigh Hunt.

Exercise 89.— 1. Is this a true story? Give it in your own words, trying not to leave out any idea expressed in the poem. What is the lesson it teaches? 2. What does *tribe* mean here? Is it specially appropriate? Why? 3. Do you think the name About Ben Adhem adds interest to the poem more than some more familiar name would have done? 4. What three names are given to the visitor? 5. Is this better than repeating the word *angel*? Why *it* rather than *he*? 6. Explain *like a lily in bloom; all sweet accord; exceeding peace; bold*. 7. Is *cheerly* the usual form? 8. Tell what you can about the author.

THE CHAMBERED NAUTILUS.

This is the ship of pearl, which, poets feign,
Sails the unshadowed main, —
The venturous bark that flings
On the sweet summer wind its purpled wings
In gulfs enchanted, where the Siren sings,
And coral reefs lie bare,
Where the cold sea-maids rise to sun their streaming hair.

Its webs of living gauze no more unfurl;
Wrecked is the ship of pearl!
And every chambered cell,
Where its dim dreaming life was wont to dwell,
As the frail tenant shaped his growing shell,
Before thee lies revealed, —
Its irised ceiling rent, its sunless crypt unsealed!

Year after year beheld the silent toil
That spread his lustrous coil;
Still, as the spiral grew,
He left the past year's dwelling for the new,
Stole with soft step its shining archway through,
Built up its idle door,
Stretched in his last-found home, and knew the old no more.

Thanks for the heavenly message brought by thee,
Child of the wandering sea,
Cast from her lap, forlorn!
From thy dead lips a clearer note is born
Than ever Triton blew from wreathèd horn!
While on mine ear it rings,
Through the deep caves of thought I hear a voice that sings:—

Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul,
 As the swift seasons roll !
 Leave thy low-vaulted past !
 Let each new temple, nobler than the last,
 Shut thee from heaven with a dome more vast,
 Till thou at length art free,
 Leaving thine outgrown shell by life's unresting sea !

— O. W. Holmes.

Exercise 90. — Suggestions. Read a description of the nautilus. Try to find a picture, or a shell if you are near a museum of natural history. Nobody knew much about it before 1830. Not long after this Dr. Holmes wrote the poem. The old Greek name is *nautilus*, meaning a sailor.

1. Would you call the poem literal or figurative ? 2. Is it meant that the nautilus *toils* like the ant or the bee ? 3. What is meant by *stole with soft step* ? 4. Does the nautilus sail on the surface all the time ? 5. Is it known how long each chamber serves as its home ? 6. Explain or define, giving synonyms when you can ; *poets feign, unshadowed main, purpled wings, irised, rent, sunless, crypt, lustrous, Siren, Triton, low-vaulted, unresting, wandering sea, on mine ear it rings, heavenly message*. 7. What is the connection between *venturous, Siren sings, and coral reefs* ? 8. Express the chief thought of the first stanza simply in your own language, in two prose sentences. 9. Explain in a similar way the chief thought in each of the following stanzas. 10. Do you discover any plan in the poem as a whole ? 11. Does the simple statement you have prepared present this plan as effectively as the poem ? 12. What is the appropriateness of the last line, fourth stanza ? 13. Commit the whole poem to memory. 14. Study the author and some of his other poems.

THE VILLAGE PREACHER.

EXTRACT.

Near yonder copse, where once the garden smiled,
 And still where many a garden flower grows wild,
 There, where a few torn shrubs the place disclose,
 The village preacher's modest mansion rose.
 A man he was to all the country dear,
 And passing rich with forty pounds a year.
 Remote from towns he ran his godly race,
 Nor e'er had changed, nor wished to change, his place ;
 Unpracticed he to fawn, or seek for power,
 By doctrines fashioned to the varying hour ;

Far other aims his heart had learned to prize,
 More bent to raise the wretched than to rise.
 His house was known to all the vagrant train ;
 He chid their wand'rings, but relieved their pain ;
 The long-remembered beggar was his guest,
 Whose beard descending swept his aged breast ;
 The ruined spendthrift, now no longer proud,
 Claimed kindred there, and had his claim allowed ;
 The broken soldier, kindly bade to stay,
 Sat by his fire, and talked the night away,
 Wept o'er his wounds, or, tales of sorrow done,
 Shouldered his crutch and showed how fields were won.
 Pleased with his guests, the good man learned to glow,
 And quite forgot their vices in their woe ;
 Careless their merits or their faults to scan,
 His pity gave ere charity began.

Thus to relieve the wretched was his pride,
 And e'en his failings leaned to virtue's side.
 But, in his duty prompt at every call,
 He watched and wept, he prayed and felt for all ;
 And, as a bird each fond endearment tries,
 To tempt its new-fledged offspring to the skies,
 He tried each art, reprov'd each dull delay,
 Allured to brighter worlds, and led the way.

— *Oliver Goldsmith.*

Suggestions.— Read "The Deserted Village," from which the foregoing selection is an extract. Learn what you can of the author. Read "The Vicar of Wakefield," which is studied in German schools as a model of pure English.

1. Define or explain the following : *copse, garden smiled, passing rich, forty pounds, ran his godly race, fawn, bent, vagrant train, long-remembered beggar, to glow.* 2. Paraphrase the fifth line. 3. What is the connection between *thrift* and *spendthrift* ? 4. Explain "His pity gave ere charity began." 5. What most attracts you in the character of this man ? 6. Make farther study of the selection, and commit it to memory.

PART II.

SENTENCE—STRUCTURE.

CHAPTER XI.

THE SENTENCE: KINDS.

[Review §§ 5-7.]

104. When we converse with one another, or write letters to our friends, we first have thoughts in our own minds, and then we show to others what they are by the words that we use; so that what we *say* depends on what we *think*.

Exercise 91.—1. Think of something you did yesterday, and tell what it was.

2. Mention three things that happened in your last vacation.
3. What questions might a stranger ask in a city?
4. Ask two questions about your next vacation.
5. Mention three things that you have been told to do.
6. How would you ask for a book?

105. Each word differs from almost every other word in its meaning or in its use, and we select those best suited to express our thoughts.

If we were to go into the woods together, we might say,—

1. **I should like to come here every day.**
2. **This path leads to the cliff.**
3. **Do the birds sing in the rain?**

4. Are there any violets there?
5. Listen to the brook.
6. Come and sit under this tree.

On a ship we should have very different thoughts, and we might say, —

1. The water looks very green.
2. I am very fond of sailing.
3. What makes the clouds seem so low?
4. Shouldn't you like to see an iceberg?
5. Come out on the quarter-deck.
6. See that steamer in the distance.

106. In each of these examples the words are so arranged that they have a definite meaning, and taken together they form what is called a *sentence*. Let us see for what purpose each of these sentences is used.

Read the first two sentences in each group. In these we say what we *know* or *believe*.

Read sentences 3 and 4. In these we do not say that anything *does* or *is* so and so, we only *ask* about it; and in sentences 5 and 6 we *request* or *order* something to be done. Can you express a thought clearly without a sentence?

Exercise 92. — 1. Write two questions that might be asked after a snow-storm. Two commands that might be given. Two statements that might be made.

2. Write six more as if you were on a railway train.

107. Any other sentences we could make would do one of these three things, — assert, ask, or order. Hence we say that —

Sentences are complete assertions, questions, or commands.

Exercise 93. — 1. What is the meaning of "assert"?

2. Make assertions in answer to the four questions in § 105.
3. Make replies to the four requests.
4. Change the four assertions to questions.

Exercise 94.—1. Think about each of these groups of words, and then tell whether it is a **complete sentence** or only **part of one**. Give your reason thus:—

“Green with leaves” is not a sentence, because it does not form a statement, question, or command.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|--|
| 1. A fine October morning. | 13. O such a blaze! |
| 2. The leaves are red and green. | 14. The smoke filled the air. |
| 3. And some yellow. | 15. A strong wind from the north-west. |
| 4. Here are some purplish ones. | 16. Let us try to find some nuts. |
| 5. None are brown. | 17. Are there any chestnut-trees in the grove? |
| 6. The trees in the swamps. | 18. Very few. |
| 7. Very few flowers remain. | 19. Bring your basket to-morrow. |
| 8. All along the road to the pond. | 20. If it rains. |
| 9. Found twenty dead trees. | 21. Three gray squirrels in a hollow tree. |
| 10. Some were girdled by mice. | |
| 11. Dry and brittle as pipe-stems. | |
| 12. We set them on fire. | |

2. **Change** those of the preceding groups that are only **parts of sentences**, into **complete sentences** by using additional words.

3. Tell in your own words what they are all about, as if you were **telling a story**.

108. We have seen that every sentence either asserts or asks or orders. Hence we say that—

There are *three kinds of sentences*. We call them assertive, interrogative, and imperative.

We shall learn later that sentences are also classified according to their *forms*.

109. **An Assertive Sentence states a fact or an opinion.**

As: You speak correctly. You will learn to speak correctly.

110. **An Interrogative Sentence asks a question.**

As: Do I speak correctly?

111. **An Imperative Sentence gives a command, makes a request or expresses a wish.**

As: Speak correctly. Please teach me to speak correctly. May you live long and be happy.

Exercise 95.—1. After reading each of these sentences, tell whether it is assertive, interrogative, or imperative. Give your reason thus:—

“Cheer up” is an imperative sentence, because it gives a command.

- | | |
|---|----------------------------------|
| 1. Have you ever heard of Australia ? | 8. Tell me. |
| 2. That's a strange question. Of course I have. | 9. How long should we stay ? |
| 3. Do not be provoked. | 10. Think how I should enjoy it. |
| 4. I am going there next month. | 11. You <i>will</i> take me. |
| 5. Should you like to be my companion ? | 12. Won't you say yes ? |
| 6. Indeed I should. | 13. O I must go ! |
| 7. Do you really mean it ? | 14. Stop ! |
| | 15. Remember how far it is. |

2. Listen to the reading of sentences by your teacher, and tell the **kind** of each as you hear it.

3. **Classify** the sentences in any of the subsequent exercises in this book.

4. What does “interrogative” mean ?

112. Exclamations. Sentences of any of these three classes may also be exclamatory ; that is, they may also express excitement, surprise, impatience, etc. For example:—

ASSERTIVE : 'Tis false ! There he goes !

INTERROGATIVE : Who would be afraid !

IMPERATIVE : Come on ! Keep your courage up !

Exercise 96.—1. Which of the sentences in Ex. 95 are also exclamatory ?

2. What kind of sentence is each of these ?

- | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. Hark ! | 5. Rouse, ye Romans ! |
| 2. Who cares ! | 6. May Heaven bless you ! |
| 3. Do come here ! | 7. What do you say, you rascal ! |
| 4. We shall be so happy ! | 8. Who would have believed it ! |

113. Exclamations like—

How many colors the sunset shows !

What a long ride it would be to the moon !

seem to form a new class ; but they are really shortened forms of command sentences, — *See how many colors, etc. Think what a long ride, etc.*

Exclamations of this kind always begin with *how* or *what*.

CHAPTER XII.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

A. THE SUBJECT.

114. Every assertive sentence must of course be an assertion *about something*. Whenever we make a statement, we say that *something* is or does so and so.

Exercise 97. — Read each sentence, and tell what the statement is about.

- | | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Embers glow. | 5. Dewdrops glisten. | 9. Candles flicker. |
| 2. Opals gleam. | 6. Sunsets flame. | 10. Torches blaze. |
| 3. Fire-flies glint. | 7. Lamps flare. | 11. Diamonds sparkle. |
| 4. Gold glitters. | 8. Lightning flashes. | 12. Stars twinkle. |

115. The part of the sentence that shows *what we speak of* is called the *subject*. Thus, in the sentence, *Bees hum*, we speak of *bees*, and the word *bees* is the subject.*

Exercise 98. What is the *subject* in the following sentences? Give your reason thus: —

“Horses neigh.” In this sentence the word “horses” is the subject, because it represents that about which something is said.

- | | | |
|--------------------|------------------|------------------|
| 1. Sparrows chirp. | 4. Owls screech. | 7. Doves coo. |
| 2. Chickens peep. | 5. Crows caw. | 8. Geese cackle. |
| 3. Cocks crow. | 6. Larks sing. | 9. Hens cluck. |

* *To the Teacher.* — No attempt will be made to differentiate uniformly between the grammatical subject and that which it represents. The distinction between the *thing* and the *word* or symbol that stands for it, between *John* and his *name*, should, however, be kept clear. We shall avoid circumlocution by sometimes using the terms “subject,” “predicate,” “object,” etc., for the things and thoughts themselves, and sometimes for the words that represent them.

116. In the following sentences the same statement is made about four different things:—

- Butterflies** find honey in flowers.
Honey-bees find honey in flowers.
Humming-birds find honey in flowers.
Burly bumble-bees find honey in flowers.

Read the subject of each one, and tell how many words are used in forming it.

Exercise 99.—What is the whole subject in each sentence? Give your reason thus:—

“The deep blue sea flows round the world.” In this sentence the words “The deep blue sea” are the subject, for they represent that of which something is said.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. The ocean is bitter and salt. | 7. A polar bear could be seen amidst the ice and snow. |
| 2. The wind was dying away. | 8. The strongest ships are often crushed in the ice-floes. |
| 3. Large and small fishes came to the surface to breathe. | 9. Whale-fishing is a dangerous occupation. |
| 4. Several whales were spouting. | 10. D is the first letter of danger and of death. |
| 5. Seven icebergs were drifting past. | |
| 6. What sign of life was there? | |

117. The Subject of a sentence represents that about which something is said.

B. THE PREDICATE.

118. In every assertive sentence something is said about one thing or another.

Exercise 100.—What is said of the things named in each of these sentences?

- | | | | |
|------------------|--------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Clouds float. | 4. Snow drifts. | 7. Wind blows. | 10. Billows roll. |
| 2. Rain falls. | 5. Hail rattles. | 8. Waves break. | 11. Oceans surge. |
| 3. Sleet drives. | 6. Water splashes. | 9. Breakers roar. | 12. Tides flow. |

119. This part that states, declares, or asserts, is called the *predicate*. Thus, in the sentence, *Frogs croak*, the word *croak* is the predicate, because it asserts something about frogs.

Exercise 101. — What is the **predicate** in these sentences? Give your reasons thus :—

“Lions roar.” In this sentence “roar” is the predicate, because it asserts something about lions.

- | | | |
|------------------|---------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Donkeys bray. | 4. Dogs bark. | 7. The sea is rough. |
| 2. Bears growl. | 5. Lambs bleat. | 8. The sails are rent. |
| 3. Wolves howl. | 6. Monkeys chatter. | 9. We drop anchor. |

120. In the following sentences four different statements are made about the same thing :—

Icebergs **melt slowly**.
 Icebergs **come from the polar regions**.
 Icebergs **drift with the polar currents**.
 Icebergs **are very dangerous to commerce**.

Melt slowly in the first is the predicate, because it represents what is asserted of icebergs.

Observe that the predicate of each of the other three sentences consists of several words.

Exercise 102. — 1. What is the **entire predicate** in each sentence? Give your reason thus :—

“The night was nearly spent.” Here “was nearly spent” is the predicate, because it is what is said about “the night.”

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. All nature was asleep. | 7. The stage-horn sounded in the distance. |
| 2. Every leaf was still. | 8. A dusty drover was hurrying some sheep along the road. |
| 3. The dew was sparkling. | 9. Everything seemed to catch the spirit of the morning. |
| 4. The sun had just appeared. | |
| 5. Robins and bluebirds began to flutter about. | |
| 6. Gray smoke curled up from the chimneys. | |

2. Copy the sentences in Ex. 100, and draw a vertical line between the subject and the predicate, thus :—

The earth | moves round the sun.

121. The **Predicate** of a sentence represents what is said about the **subject**.

C. SUBJECT AND PREDICATE COMBINED.

122. We have found that every assertive sentence has two necessary parts, — the *subject*, or that about which the assertion is made, and the *predicate*, or that which is asserted of the subject.

Two words therefore may make a sentence.

In commands, as: **Come**, the subject, “thou,” or “ye,” is usually understood.

Interrogative and imperative sentences might be divided in the same way, but we study assertive sentences first because they are easier and more common.

Exercise 103. — Make sentences, using one of these words as subject and one as predicate: —

fishes	frogs	men	girls	monkeys
crawl	walk	trot	leap	chatter
worms	birds	boys	horses	ships
fly	float	swim	run	dance

123. We generally require *more than one word* to show what we wish to speak of. Thus, we may wish to say that *Trees grow*, meaning trees in general; but if we wish to speak more definitely, we say, —

Those trees | grow, or
 Those tall trees | grow, or
 Those tall trees with arching branches | grow.

So, too, generally more than one word is needed to express what we wish to say about anything. Thus, we may say, —

The trees | grow, or
 The trees | grow rapidly, or
 The trees | grow rapidly this year, or
 The trees | grow rapidly this year without care.

Hence the subject and the predicate may each consist of several words.

Exercise 104. — Write predicates of *more than one word* for these subjects; that is, say something so as to make an assertive sentence: —

- | | | |
|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Stars | 8. Kindness | 15. The phonograph |
| 2. The sun | 9. The Philippines | 16. Anger |
| 3. The moon | 10. Electricity | 17. The United States |
| 4. Humming-birds | 11. My photograph | 18. The Chinese |
| 5. Victoria | 12. Oil-paintings | 19. Admiral Dewey |
| 6. Alfred the Great | 13. Peacocks | 20. The Oregon |
| 7. Honesty | 14. Squirrels | 21. Huge waves |

Exercise 105. — Write subjects of *more than one word* for these predicates: —

- | | |
|---|-------------------------------|
| 1. are chirping | 10. grow in the conservatory. |
| 2. are buzzing | 11. laid the wall. |
| 3. are croaking. | 12. built the house. |
| 4. is the President of the United States. | 13. made the furniture. |
| 5. was a great general. | 14. are found in the woods. |
| 6. were an ancient people. | 15. float in with the tide. |
| 7. shade the streets. | 16. live upon flesh. |
| 8. shade the windows. | 17. are all used for food. |
| 9. shade the women's faces. | 18. are found in menageries. |
| | 19. is a beautiful poem. |

D. SIMPLE SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

124. If we think about the sentences we use, we see that the subject part is very different from the predicate part.

Exercise 106. — Which of these expressions might be used as predicates?

- | | | |
|--------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. the smoke | 5. covers the ground | 9. a delicate perfume |
| 2. over the valley | 6. morning mists | 10. will evaporate |
| 3. disappeared | 7. may settle | 11. smells very sweet |
| 4. poisonous gases | 8. was scattered | 12. of a furnace |

125. Some of our words, as —

John, eagles, dewdrops, courage, childhood,

are *names* of things, and, like **him, I, you,** etc., they cannot be used to state or assert. But we see at once that *asserting* words, like —

catches, soar, glisten, strengthens, hastens,

are very different, and that we do not use them as subjects.

126. The complete subject of a simple sentence must always contain one word or group of words that serves as a name for what we speak of. The most of such words are called *nouns*. So the complete predicate must always contain an assertive word called a *verb*.

These are the necessary or essential parts of every subject and predicate, no matter how long they happen to be.

Thus in the sentence —

Those tall elm trees grow rapidly this year, the complete subject is **Those tall elm trees**; but of these four words the necessary or essential one is **trees**, for it names what we speak of. We call it the essential or *simple* subject.

So in the complete predicate **grow rapidly this year**, the essential word is **grow**; for it is the word that makes the assertion. We call it the *simple* predicate.

The words *those* and *tall* are used with *trees* to show that only a limited number of trees is meant. *Rapidly* and *this year* are used with *grow* to add to its meaning by showing *how* and *when*.

127. Words used in this way with the simple subject and simple predicate of a sentence are called *modifiers*, because they *modify* or change the application or meaning of the words with which they are used.

Exercise 107. — Which of these words is a modifier of the other. Try to tell how it affects its application or meaning.

few books	speak distinctly	very true
high chimneys	come quickly	every person
some stars	walk carefully	somewhat better
faint sounds	write to-day	never despair

Use each of these expressions in a sentence.

128. A **Modifier** is a word or group of words used with another word to change its meaning or application.

Exercise 108. — Lengthen each of these bare sentences by adding modifiers to the simple subject and to the simple predicate, so as to make a fuller and more definite statement. Thus —

“Trouble | arises.” Serious trouble among friends | often arises from trifling causes.

- | | | |
|------------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| 1. ivies grew | 4. carpenter built | 7. walls fell |
| 2. ships sail | 5. house stood | 8. windows looked |
| 3. pictures hang | 6. gale broke | 9. room contained |

Exercise 109. — 1. In these sentences what is the whole or complete subject ?

2. Find the **simple subject** ; that is, the one word that names what the assertion is about.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| 1. Our journey soon begins. | 5. A cold, bleak wind is blowing. |
| 2. The last day has come. | 6. Traveling by night seems dreary. |
| 3. Many years of happiness are gone. | 7. The road to town is rough and steep. |
| 4. All the future is uncertain. | 8. For a week no friends will greet us. |

129. The Complete Subject of a sentence is the simple subject and its modifiers.

130. The Simple Subject of a sentence is the subject without modifiers.

Exercise 110. — 1. In these sentences what is the **complete predicate** ?

2. Find also the **simple predicate** ; that is, find the asserting word.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. The storm passed this side of the mountains. | 5. Something always happens unexpectedly. |
| 2. Our prospects brightened at once. | 6. The surprise gives us courage. |
| 3. We hoped for the best. | 7. The morning finds our journey ended. |
| 4. Time decides all questions. | 8. Who cares for wintry storms ? |

131. The Complete Predicate of a sentence is the simple predicate and its modifiers.

132. The Simple Predicate of a sentence is the predicate without modifiers.

Exercise 111. — Write these sentences ; separate the principal parts by a vertical line ; draw a *wavy* line under the **simple subject**, and a *straight* line under the verb, or **simple predicate**, thus : —

The leaves of this tree | fall every autumn.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. The southern forest yields the largest timber. | 7. The sturdy oak stands for stability and strength. |
| 2. The trunks of some trees measure several feet in diameter. | 8. The wood of this tree serves many useful purposes. |
| 3. The elms resemble human beings. | 9. The lifetime of a tree depends in part on its surroundings. |
| 4. Their arching tops almost speak to us. | 10. A century in the forest makes a venerable giant. |
| 5. Whispers come from groves of pine. | 11. The groves were God's first temples. |
| 6. Their needle-like leaves make a luxurious carpet. | |

133. Inverted Order. In simple assertive sentences the subject usually comes before the predicate. Sometimes, however, this order is changed or *inverted* for the sake of emphasis or clearness, or in poetry for other reasons. [See §§ 101, 102.]

Exercise 112. — Arrange each of these sentences in the usual order. Is there a change of meaning? A loss of force?

Point out subject and predicate, both simple and complete.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. Dark was the night. | 7. Blessed are the merciful. |
| 2. Flashed all their sabers bare. | 8. Faithful are the wounds of a friend. |
| 3. Down the hillside ran a small brook. | 9. Then, if ever, come perfect days. |
| 4. Vain were all their efforts. | 10. On sky and mountain wall, |
| 5. Into each life some rain must fall. | Are God's great pictures hung. |
| 6. Around this valley rise
The purple hills of Paradise. | |

134. When the subject follows the verb the sentence is said to be in *inverted order*.

Many inverted sentences are introduced by *there*. As, —

There is nothing new under the sun.

135. Interrogative Sentences. The subject of an interrogative sentence generally follows the verb or some part of it. Often an interrogative word introduces the sentence. As,

When shall you come?

Exercise 113. — Indicate the complete and the simple subject and predicate.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. When was Rome founded ? | 7. Is it a time to be sad ? |
| 2. What is the price of wisdom ? | 8. Can you count the stars ? |
| 3. Where is ivory found ? | 9. Whither shall I flee from thy presence ? |
| 4. Shall we give up in despair ? | |
| 5. Come ye in peace, or come ye in war. | 10. Is there no hope of peace ? |
| 6. Why do birds sing ? | 11. There will be no night there. |

136. Imperative Sentences. The subject of an imperative sentence represents the person to whom the command is given and is generally omitted. It is understood to be *thou* or *ye*, and when expressed commonly follows the verb. As,

Sit (*thou*) here. Stand (*ye*) firm.

Exercise 114. — Find the complete and the simple subject and predicate.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---|
| 1. Obey your parents cheerfully. | 6. Neither a borrower nor a lender be. |
| 2. Extend a hearty welcome to him. | 7. Praise God from whom all blessings flow. |
| 3. Strive to win the prize. | |
| 4. Save in youth to spend in age. | 8. Keep thy tongue from evil. |
| 5. Bring ye the tribute money. | 9. May happiness attend you. |
10. Announced by all the trumpets of the sky
Arrives the snow.
11. April cold with dropping rain
Willows and lilacs brings again.
12. Learn the sweet magic of a cheerful face.
13. Nature fits all her children with something to do.
14. The creation of a thousand forests is in one acorn.
15. Homeward the ploughman plods his weary way.
16. An honest man's the noblest work of God.
17. The spacious firmament on high,
With all the blue ethereal sky,
And spangled heavens, a shining frame,
Their great Original proclaim.
18. Full many a gem of purest ray serene
The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear.

CHAPTER XIII.

KINDS OF WORDS.

[*To the Teacher.* — The sentence is in a very important sense the structural unit in the use of language. It is accordingly given especial prominence, and is treated with considerable fullness before the details of word formation are taken up. Such facts regarding the Parts of Speech as are essential to an understanding of the structure of the sentence are presented in this chapter. A fuller treatment of their formation and uses will be found later.]

137. We have studied in Chapter XII. the two most important ways of *using* words, and therefore know what the two principal kinds are.

Words *used to assert*, even if they have very different meanings, are all classed together as *verbs*; and when we speak of *nouns* we always mean words that are *used as names*.

So, too, all other words are divided into classes according to the way we *use* them in making sentences. Hence we say that —

138. Words are divided into kinds or classes according to their use in sentences.

We shall find that there are *eight* of these classes, and we call them the Parts of Speech.

139. In order that we may the better understand the structure of sentences, let us examine briefly the various *kinds* of words as determined by their *use*.

I. NOUNS.

Exercise 115.—1. Mention five kinds of birds ; of fur-bearing animals.

2. Name five things you have seen in a store ; at a fair.

3. Name five things to be seen at the seaside, or by a river. Name five to be seen —

On a ship. Among mountains. On a farm. In a mill.

4. Name several things to be heard —

On the street. When traveling. In church. In the night.

5. What are four things that make —

A good scholar ? A good soldier ? A boy's character ? A poor scholar ?

140. About half the words in our language are alike in one respect ; that is, they are names of things, and are therefore called *Nouns*.

Exercise 116.—1. Examine these sentences carefully, and mention every name or **noun** that you find :—

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. The garden is brilliant with daffodils and tulips. | 8. The merry shouts of children fill the air. |
| 2. Their beauty depends much upon their colors. | 9. What report did the messenger bring ? |
| 3. This brook is full of fine trout. | 10. The breeze brings the odor of the flowers. |
| 4. "Poor Richard" was born in Boston. | 11. Pain teaches men patience. |
| 5. Hear the jingle of the sleigh-bells. | 12. Hope was followed by despair. |
| 6. A cry of joy rings through the land. | 13. Our guide had no fear in times of danger. |
| 7. How delicate the perfume is ! | 14. Innocence is the charm of childhood. |

141. Some nouns stand for such things as can be seen, as, **daffodils, beauty, Boston** ; others for what we hear, as, **jingle, cry, shout** ; some for what we can only smell, as, **fragrance, odor** ; others for what can be felt in some way, as, **breeze, pain, fear** ; and when we come to think more about all such things we find use for many other nouns, as, **innocence, charm, childhood**.

142. A noun is a word used as the name of something.

The word "noun" means just this: the *name* by which a thing is *known*.

143. An assertion may be made about anything we can name, and so any noun may be the subject of a sentence. But we often use the name of something about which we do not make any statement, and so we may have in one sentence many nouns besides the subject. Thus:—

This steamship | has two red paddle-wheels, a black stack for the smoke, and three tall masts without sails.

Here **steamship** is the subject, and the complete predicate is a long one, containing five nouns. What are they?

Exercise 117.—1. Which of the nouns in Ex. 116 do not belong to the subject?

2. Write sentences, using **three** of these nouns in each one:—

flock	raven	fox	thief	wings
geese	piece	tail	home	flapping
trees	cheese	brush	dinner	noise

144. When the complete subject contains the names of several things, we must be careful to distinguish the one *essential* word which, if it stood alone, would still name the subject. Thus, in the sentence—

The famous palace of the kings of the Moors at Granada, in Spain, | was called the Alhambra, —

we have five nouns in the complete subject; but we see that it is the **palace** that was called the Alhambra. The other words are added to show *which* palace is meant.

We shall use the word "subject" hereafter to mean the *simple* subject.

Exercise 118.—1. Make a list of the twenty-five nouns in these sentences. Draw a wavy line under the eleven used as subjects.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. The darkest clouds bring rain. | 4. The rays of the sun were almost entirely obscured. |
| 2. The leaves of the trees rustled in the wind. | 5. A dim light came in at the windows. |
| 3. Great clouds of smoke were floating in the air. | 6. Our tasks were left undone. |

- | | |
|---|-----------------------------------|
| 7. At night the moon could not be seen. | 10. The brooks on the mountains |
| 8. The trees along the river were torn | were swollen to torrents. |
| up by the roots. | 11. A wooden bridge near the town |
| 9. The birds' feathers were wet and | was carried away. |
| dripping. | |

II. PRONOUNS.

1. In the sentences: Mr. Richardson was a wealthy man. **He** kept many horses. **These** were **his** favorites. **They** lived in a fine stable. **It** was like a dwelling-house, — who is meant by **he**? What by **these**? By **his**? By **they**? To what does it refer?

2. Read the sentences, using these other words instead of **he**, **they**, etc., but without changing the meaning.

3. Which do you think is the better way to make these assertions? Give the reason.

145. Besides nouns, there are a few other words, meaningless in themselves, such as *he*, *these*, *they*, *it*, which often stand for something we have just mentioned, no matter what it is.

Thus, if any one said, **The President has inspected the Navy**, he might add, **He found it in fair condition**; but he would not repeat the nouns, and say that **The President found the Navy in fair condition**.

So when we point to a thing, instead of calling it by name, we generally use a word of this kind, like *this* or *that*, *these* or *those*.

146. Such words are called *Pronouns* because they take the place of nouns; and we always prefer to use them when we can be readily understood.

Exercise 119. — 1. Try to **improve** the following by using other words instead of repeating the nouns: —

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. The people were returning from work. | 4. One woman was very ill. |
| 2. The work was very hard. | 5. This woman was being carried by the woman's husband. |
| 3. The work seemed to make the people weary. | 6. The husband was the town-crier. |

2. If Jane were speaking to John, would she say, "John surprised Jane," or, "You surprised me" ?

3. If Carl were greeting his friend William, what would he say instead of "Carl is glad to see William" ?

147. When we speak or write to a person, we do not constantly refer to him by name; we say *you*, instead: and when we say anything about ourselves, we never think of using our names; for, no matter what they are, we almost always say, *I, me, myself, we, us*, and so on.

Thus, we should say, **I** wish **you** would come to see **me**; and the reply might be, **We** shall be glad to have **you** entertain **us**.

Here there are no nouns, — nobody is mentioned by name; but the meaning would be very clear to those who were present. Try to substitute names, and you will see how convenient the pronouns are.

Exercise 120. — 1. Select the **pronouns** in these sentences; that is, the words used instead of nouns.

- | | |
|--|------------------------------------|
| 1. The doctor is coming. | 6. It was perfectly white. |
| 2. Call to him. | 7. They seemed to me to be frozen. |
| 3. Have you improved ? | 8. The nurse was with us. |
| 4. Yes; I feel quite well. | 9. She warmed them by rubbing. |
| 5. Early this morning I could see
your arms stretched out over
the snow. | 10. You must thank her. |
| | 11. We are very glad. |

2. Which of the pronouns are used as **subjects** ?

148. When we do not know the name of a person or a thing we use a pronoun to ask a question. Thus: —

Who brought the news ?

Which did you say ?

What caused the fire ?

Whom shall we blame ?

1. Write assertive sentences in answer to the preceding questions.
2. What words have you used in place of the pronouns ?
3. Write imperative or interrogative sentences, using **two** of these pronouns in each one: — *I, myself; me, mine; we, ourselves; us, ours.*

149. Every one of the thousands of nouns in our language, and every expression, however long, that is used like a noun to describe a person or a thing, can be replaced at one time or another by pronouns. Their use enables us to point out what we have been talking about more exactly than we could by taking the trouble to describe it again. Pronouns form a class by themselves because their meaning depends upon the connection in which they stand; but they are used as subjects and in other ways very much as nouns are.

Exercise 121.—In these sentences give the whole expression that each pronoun takes the place of:—

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. The sail down the river was very pleasant. | 6. Two of them were exciting. |
| 2. It occupied about nine hours. | 7. His first vessel was a brigantine of six hundred tons. |
| 3. We met several fine yachts. | 8. She foundered off the coast of Jamaica. |
| 4. They seemed to be racing. | 9. He told us how he was forced to abandon her. |
| 5. The captain of the steamer told many of his adventures. | |

150. A Pronoun is a word that is used instead of a noun.

The word "pronoun" means *for a noun*.

151. The word for which a pronoun stands is called its **Antecedent**.

III. VERBS.

Exercise 122.—1. What are assertive sentences? Give an example.
 2. What are the other kinds? Make a sentence of each kind. 3. Explain the meaning of "assert."
 4. Make assertions about five things that you see.
 5. Are the following expressions sentences of any sort? Tell your reason.

Squirrels in hollow trees.

We chestnuts in October.

The sap in the spring.

The ice thick enough to bear.

6. Make assertive sentences of them by using *live, flows, gather, is*.
 7. Change them to interrogative sentences.

152. Words used to assert are called *verbs*. They are not as numerous as nouns, but they form an equally important class, and most other words have been derived from them.

153. To make a complete sentence we need only give the *name* of something, and say or *assert* something about it. With a *noun* or a pronoun and a *verb* we can do just this. As, —

Flowers fade. I command. Grass withers. They obey.

Without a verb there can be no assertion, — no predicate, — no sentence.

Exercise 123. — 1. What kind of word will make sentences of the following? Supply what is needed. Exercises of this sort should be repeated till the function of verbs is distinctly felt.

Rubber — from South America.

The pure gum — very valuable.

Water — the wheels of the mill.

The cotton-plant — in the Gulf States.

A letter — three thousand miles for two cents.

The Gulf Stream — north-east.

Behring Strait — the Arctic and the Pacific Oceans.

The signal service — a fair day to-morrow.

The snow — ten feet deep in the woods last winter.

The boys all — hunting yesterday.

The fox — by hiding under a rock.

Trout-fishing — considerable skill.

154. **Verb Phrases.** The verb may be a *single word* that asserts; as when we say, —

The tree | **grows**, meaning *now*, or

The tree | **grew**, meaning *some time ago*.

But if we wish to speak of time to come, we must say, —

The tree | **will grow**;

and in all these sentences, —

The tree | **is growing**.

The tree | **has grown**.

The tree | **would have grown**.

The tree | **may be growing**.

The tree | **might have been growing**.

we need the help of one, two, or three *other* words besides *grown* and *growing*, in order to assert what we wish about the growth of the tree. We see, then, that in these sentences we have two, three, or even four words grouped together to do the work of a single verb, and called a *phrase*.

155. A Phrase is a group of related words used as some part of speech, but not containing a subject and predicate.

156. When, as here, such a group is equivalent to a verb, we call it a **verb phrase**.

The words that form a verb phrase are often separated by other words. As, — *Do not talk* so fast. The train *will* not always *be* late. The work *could* not well *have been* more quickly *done*.

Exercise 124. — Select the expressions of more than one word that take the place of single verbs; that is to say, the **verb phrases**.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. The message was brought an hour ago. | 7. We might have kept Nero. |
| 2. We had hoped for better news. | 8. It is too late now. |
| 3. But we must lose no time. | 9. Perhaps we shall meet them all at Castleton. |
| 4. The best horses have been sent over the turnpike. | 10. Saddle your horses at once. |
| 5. They may overtake the party. | 11. The back road will be safest. |
| 6. Otherwise nothing but failure awaits us. | 12. I should inquire for them at Newbury. |
| | 13. They must have gone early. |

157. A Verb is an asserting word or phrase.

The word "verb" means *word*, — *that which is spoken*.

158. A Verb phrase is a group of words used as a single verb.

Verb phrases are often called **verbs**.

We shall learn sometime that many other groups of words used like single words are also called *phrases*.

Exercise 125. — Select the single **verbs** and the **verb phrases**.

The air thickens. Familiar objects are hidden as by a mist. Paths disappear. Voices of teamsters are heard. Nothing can be seen in the road. Like

a fog the snow hides all things. Not a breath of wind disturbs its descent. The branches of the trees are clothed as with wool. Still the noiseless flakes fill the sky. A change has taken place.

159. It very often happens, as in these sentences, —

The **man** has a son, They **man** the boats,

that there is no difference in the spelling of two words, one of which is a noun and the other a verb ; and we must remember to decide about them by their *use*.

Exercise 126. — Distinguish between the **nouns** and the **verbs** that are spelled alike in these sentences. Thus : —

“ Pass ” in the first sentence is a *verb* ; “ pass ” in the seventh sentence is a *noun*.

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. Pass through here. | 9. We demand your surrender. |
| 2. Order a load of stones. | 10. He drives without fear. |
| 3. Load them with care. | 11. He hands me a whip. |
| 4. They work with their hands. | 12. He gave his consent reluctantly. |
| 5. They care not for play. | 13. He dogs me while at my work. |
| 6. He stones the stray dogs. | 14. We whip them by your order. |
| 7. Fear not the pass. | 15. They play during my drives. |
| 8. Will you consent to the change ? | 16. Surrender at our command. |

IV. ADJECTIVES.

160. We must have seen that most sentences are made up of *something more* than a *noun* (or a pronoun) and a *verb*. It is true, of course, that the very shortest ones *may* give us some information about their subjects. For example, in **Ice breaks** and **Diamonds glitter**, *ice* and *diamonds* are described a little ; but nobody wants to say, **Ice is** or **Diamonds are**, for these verbs **is** and **are** do not tell us anything worth saying. We have to add **descriptive** words, thus : —

Ice is brittle .	Diamonds are brilliant .
Ice is cold .	Diamonds are scarce .
Ice is transparent .	Diamonds are costly .

Without these additions the predicate seems incomplete.

Exercise 127.—1. Which are the **descriptive** words in these sentences? What is described by each of them?

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. My roses are yellow. | 8. Your rabbit is shy. |
| 2. The sky was clear. | 9. I am hungry. |
| 3. The path will be narrow. | 10. She can be careful. |
| 4. The day had been cold. | 11. We should be generous. |
| 5. My answer may be wrong. | 12. My friend looks ill. |
| 6. They seem anxious. | 13. The milk has become sour. |
| 7. The night grows dark. | 14. The knives must be sharp. |

2. Could the descriptive words be used like nouns as the subject of a sentence? Tell the reason.

3. Change these expressions to **assertions**; then change them to **questions**:—

- | | | |
|----------------------|---------------------|----------------------|
| 1. yellow gold. | 3. lofty mountains. | 5. dull knife. |
| 2. eloquent orators. | 4. fierce tigers. | 6. skillful doctors. |

Exercise 128.— Make assertions, using with the verbs words **descriptive** of these things. Thus:—

“Foxes are *cunning*.”

- | | |
|--------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Foxes —. | 7. The pears in my orchard —. |
| 2. The use of tobacco —. | 8. Our country —. |
| 3. Rosewood —. | 9. That well —. |
| 4. The music —. | 10. Yonder mountains —. |
| 5. Some clouds —. | 11. My kitten —. |
| 6. Your clock —. | 12. Country roads —. |

161. Even when we use a verb that does not require something to be added, as in *Roses grow*, still we commonly wish to tell what kind of roses is meant, and how, or where, or when they grow. Thus: *Yellow roses grow by still rivers*.

162. Words of this kind are called *Adjectives* because they describe a person or a thing by *adding* some quality to the name that is used; that is, they *describe* or *qualify* what is mentioned.

Exercise 129. — 1. Which words in these sentences are used with a noun to describe the object it represents by adding some quality?

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Kind friends have come. | 13. White, fleecy clouds are in the blue sky. |
| 2. They brought us purple grapes. | 14. I see a large grasshopper on a pointed leaf. |
| 3. Black clouds turn to rain. | 15. He has eaten a small round hole in it. |
| 4. Rolling stones gather no moss. | 16. My tapping on the leafy bough stops his merry song. |
| 5. Grangers gather golden grain. | 17. Then a green locust begins with a loud buzz. |
| 6. Studious boys make intelligent men. | 18. The limp grass would be revived by a gentle rain or a heavy shower. |
| 7. Fairest flowers will fade. | |
| 8. Absent friends forget us. | |
| 9. Little leaks sink great ships. | |
| 10. Old wood makes the best fire. | |
| 11. Sound health is long life. | |
| 12. It is a warm day in July. | |

2. Copy ten of these sentences, underlining subject and verb. Inclose adjectives that qualify the subject in curves. Thus:—

(Kind) friends have come.

163. An adjective, then, may be used in *two ways*:—

1. We may make it a part of the predicate so as to assert that the subject has a certain quality; as,—

The meadows are fertile.

An adjective used in this way is called a *predicate adjective*.

2. Without using it in this way as part of the assertion, we may make it add to what the noun alone in any part of the sentence would mean; as,—

Happy children have sunny faces.

Exercise 130. — 1. Mention the adjectives that are descriptive, and tell to what each one adds a quality.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. The day was pleasant. | 4. The Yosemite Valley is noted for its magnificent scenery. |
| 2. The busy bee improves the shining hour. | 5. The domestic commerce of Boston is extensive. |
| 3. The old songs are delightful. | |

- | | |
|---|--|
| 6. I am reading an interesting book. | 12. On a low bench under a spreading tree sat an old sailor. |
| 7. Richard looked sober at this. | |
| 8. Delays are dangerous. | 13. Beneath her torn hat glowed the wealth |
| 9. Laughing is contagious. | Of simple beauty and rustic health. |
| 10. The moon silvers the distant hills. | 14. Stone walls do not a prison make, Nor iron bars a cage. |
| 11. The full moon threw its silvery light upon the rippling waters of the lake. | |

164. Most adjectives *describe* what the noun or the pronoun represents. But there are *other words called adjectives*, which affect the meaning in a *different* way; thus, if we say, —

The king lived a year and some months in this city,

we show that we mean only a *particular* king, only *one* year, about *how many* months, and *which* city. These words, **the, a, some, this**, are adjectives, because they *add* something to our meaning that was not expressed by the noun alone; but they do not tell what *kind* of king, year, month, or city, as if we were to say, —

A good king lived a dreary year and three tiresome months in a hostile city.

165. Words that refer to number are of this sort; as here, —

one day	sixteen months	first minute
two weeks	tenth hour	half second

These show to just how many or to which one the name applies; and there are only about forty others, including, —

a or an, the,	every, few,	same, several,
many, any, all,	first, last,	this or these,
each, either,	much, no,	that or those.

166. Such adjectives, without referring to any quality, always add something to our meaning by showing *which ones*, or *how many*, and so on. Without them the meaning of a noun might be very indefinite, and so we say that they *determine* or *limit* the application of it. We call them *limiting* adjectives.

Exercise 131.—Select the adjectives that do not describe, but only show to which ones, or to how many, the noun applies. Tell what each one limits.

1. Eight men were on that committee.
2. February has twenty-nine days every fourth year.
3. Each exercise must be well written.
4. Much harm arises from imprudence.
5. No man knows all things.
6. Every flock contains some black sheep.
7. This park contains forty-four acres.
8. All the trees in yonder row have stood there many years.
9. Several English elms and some maples were blown down.
10. That pond down the slope is used for skating every year.
11. There are no shade trees on either side of that street.
12. Few persons take much interest in such matters.
13. Both rivers rise in the same plateau.
14. A careless or ignorant person might improperly say "*them* books," instead of "*those* books."
15. Always say "*this* kind," "*that* sort": it is an error to say "*these* kind," "*those* sort."

167. An Adjective is a word used to describe some person or thing, or to limit the application of a noun.

The word "adjective" means something *that is added* to a noun or name.

168. Descriptive or qualifying adjectives describe what is mentioned.

Limiting adjectives show *which ones, how many, and so on, without describing.*

Exercise 132.—1. Put all the adjectives into two lists, — one for those that describe, and one for those that do not.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. We have caught a few speckled trout in that brook. | 5. Herbivorous animals eat vegetable food. |
| 2. The new yacht <i>Louette</i> won the last race. | 6. Omnivorous animals eat all kinds of food. |
| 3. Large quantities of cotton are exported from this country each year. | 7. Every blossom on that apple-tree should have five petals. |
| 4. Carnivorous animals eat animal food. | 8. The century-plant blossoms only once in its lifetime of seven to fifty years. |

9. Deciduous trees lose their foliage every autumn. 11. Galls are round bodies formed on some plants by the stings of insects.
10. Evergreen trees are covered with foliage all the year round.
2. What noun does each adjective modify ?

Exercise 133. — Change the descriptive adjectives to others of similar meaning : —

We saw many novel sights in this remote town. There was a remarkable clearness in the air, and there were lofty hills all about clothed with extensive forests. We were walking along a zigzag path towards a rather desolate spot where the yearly fair had once been held. The abandoned booths were vacant, but we met a numerous company of persons who had come a prolonged journey through these retired valleys on some charitable errand to the peasants. They had found the burning heat very disagreeable, and seemed to be tired and eager to rest.

V. ADVERBS.

Exercise 134. — 1. Which words in these sentences show **when** the men are to work ? 2. Which tell **how**, or in what manner, they ought to work ? 3. Which show **where** ? 4. Which show **how much** ?

The men must work **quietly**.

The men must work **well**.

The men must work **early**.

The men must work **now**.

The men must work **here**.

The men must work **outside**.

The men must work **less**.

The men must work **more**.

5. Can you think of any other single words that would show *how*, or *when*, or *where* men must work ?

169. If we should take away from the examples in Ex. 134 these words, **quietly, early, here, less, well, now, outside, more**, just the same action would be asserted in every sentence. But each one of the words that are added to the verb makes a little change in what the verb alone would mean ; for they show *how, when, where*, and so on.

Exercise 135. — Which words are added to show **how, when, where**, and so on ?

- | | |
|-------------------------------|---|
| 1. Wait patiently. | 7. The plow soon scatters the snow. |
| 2. You must go now. | 8. It was scarcely needed. |
| 3. I shall visit Europe soon. | 9. The pendulum moves two and
fro continually. |
| 4. Have you ever been there ? | 10. The day has almost ended. |
| 5. The train runs regularly. | |
| 6. Snow sometimes delays it. | |

170. Words of this sort are called *Adverbs* because they are *added to verbs* to make our meaning more definite, very much as adjectives are added to nouns and pronouns.

Exercise 136.— Fill each blank with an adverb that will tell **when, where, or how.**

- | | |
|----------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. The girls write ____. | 6. Our hearts beat ____. |
| 2. We shall sing ____. | 7. The river flows ____. |
| 3. Those yachts sail ____. | 8. The fire burns ____. |
| 4. They returned ____. | 9. The messenger will return ____. |
| 5. We might go ____. | 10. Can you read music ____ ? |

Exercise 137.— Mention every **verb**, and the **adverb** that modifies it, telling whether it shows how, when, or where. Thus:—

The verb "must go" is modified by the adverb "now," which shows *when* we must go.

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------|
| 1. We must go now. | 5. He bears trouble patiently. |
| 2. Yonder comes my father. | 6. They sometimes sing finely. |
| 3. I never called there again. | 7. The best often fail. |
| 4. Water is found everywhere. | 8. Return quickly. |
| 9. The procession moved slowly onward. | |
| 10. Our friends will probably come back to-morrow. | |
| 11. The rain fell heavily last Tuesday. | |
| 12. Lightning flashed vividly in the clouds. | |
| 13. The thunder rumbled everywhere. | |
| 14. People were running hither and thither. | |
| 15. Umbrellas were quickly raised. | |
| 16. Carriages dashed hurriedly along. | |

Exercise 138.— Copy some of the sentences in Ex. 137, marking subject and verb, and putting the adverbs in brackets. Thus:—

The procession moved [onward] [slowly].

171. Some of these words have another use.

Thus, instead of, The hill is steep, This book is new, we should often wish to say *how steep*, *how nearly new*, and so on, as in —

The hill is **very** steep.

This book is **almost** new.

The hill is **less** steep.

This book is **entirely** new.

The hill is steep **enough**.

This book is new **now**.

But what kind of a word is *steep*, and what have we done to express our meaning more fully ?

There are modifiers for *adjectives*, then, just as much as for nouns and verbs.

172. Such words we already know about: they are *adverbs*. The reason for using the same kind of words with both adjectives and verbs, is that both need to be modified in the same way; that is to say, by telling *how*, *how often*, *when*, *where*, *how much*, *how little*, and so on.

Exercise 139. — 1. Select the **adjectives** in these sentences, and tell which of them are modified by **adverbs** :—

1. The night was very dark. 2. Everybody was sleeping soundly. 3. The dim light of the new moon was almost entirely concealed. 4. I was rather late about my errand. 5. The somewhat steep path over the hill was little trodden. 6. It was very much too rocky for so dark a night. 7. Even the sky was nearly black. 8. I was wisely cautious. 9. Except for such great care I should have fallen repeatedly. 10. I finally reached my destination in a completely exhausted condition.

173. Sometimes, in order to show just what we mean, we need to modify an *adverb*.

Thus :— He has come **often** may be changed to —
 He has come **very often**, or **rather often**, and —
 He spoke **truly** may become —
 He spoke **quite truly**, or **more truly**, or **less truly**.

Exercise 140. — Which words in these sentences modify adverbs ?

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| 1. Speak very distinctly. | 5. Kind deeds are almost never forgotten. |
| 2. James, you read too rapidly. | 6. Have we gone far enough ? |
| 3. How quietly that train runs ! | 7. Our exercises must be more neatly written. |
| 4. Water is found almost everywhere. | |

174. In such sentences the words that *modify* adverbs are *themselves* adverbs, and could be used to modify adjectives or verbs. Adverbs, then, can be used in *three* different ways.

175. An Adverb is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective or another adverb.

Exercise 141. — 1. Use these adverbs in sentences to modify verbs: —

cautiously	seldom	often	formerly
faithfully	always	again	lately
sometimes	forever	backward	never

2. Use these adverbs in sentences to modify adjectives: —

almost	too	totally	quite
nearly	so	entirely	how

3. Use adverbs — all different — to modify the following in sentences: —

feebly ; rapidly ; much ; greatly ; well.

VI. PREPOSITIONS.

Exercise 142. — 1. What is an adjective ?

2. In the expressions in the first column, what words describe houses ? What kind of words are they ?

<i>wooden</i> houses	or	houses <i>of wood</i> .
<i>empty</i> houses	or	houses <i>without occupants</i> .
<i>three-storied</i> houses	or	houses <i>with three stories</i> .
<i>public</i> houses	or	houses <i>for the public</i> .
<i>city</i> houses	or	houses <i>in the city</i> .

3. What do the groups of words in the second column describe ? What are they used like ?

4. Use adjectives in place of the following italicized groups without much changing the meaning. Tell what each modifies :

Business *of importance* detained me.

Carpets *from Persia* are costly.

We found a wagon *with two seats*.

Men *of wealth* should be generous.

Exercise 143. — 1. What is an adverb ?

2. What words in the first column tell *how*, *when*, or *where* the ship sails ?
What kind of words are they ?

The ship sails <i>rapidly</i>	or	The ship sails <i>with rapidity</i> .
The ship sails <i>safely</i>	or	The ship sails <i>without danger</i> .
The ship sails <i>afar</i>	or	The ship sails <i>to a distance</i> .
The ship sails <i>now</i>	or	The ship sails <i>at this time</i> .
The ship sails <i>there</i>	or	The ship sails <i>for that place</i> .

3. What does each group in the second column tell about the sailing of the ship ? What does each one mean ? What are they used like ?

4. Use **adverbs** in place of the italicized groups without much changing the meaning. What does each modify ?

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| 1. The Indians lived <i>in this place</i> . | 3. Be courteous <i>at all times</i> . |
| 2. Never write <i>without care</i> . | 4. Do they deal <i>upon honor</i> ? |

176. The single words that we have used to modify other words are adjectives or adverbs ; but we see that little groups of words called *phrases* may be used to modify both nouns and verbs in about the same way.

Thus we may speak of —

a thorny bush or a bush with thorns ;
an English home or a home in England.

It is easy to see that **with thorns** and **in England** are very much like adjectives in meaning, though they are put after the noun instead of before it. Again, in these sentences, —

The letter was **carefully** written. It was sent **promptly**.
The letter was written **with care**. It was sent **without delay**, —

the phrases **with care** and **without delay** seem to modify the verbs just as the adverbs **carefully** and **promptly** do. So, too, —

The wind blew **very furiously** might be changed to —
The wind blew **with great fury**.

177. It very often happens that there is no adjective or adverb in our language that will serve as a modifier to express our meaning, and then we are forced to use such phrases.

Here, for example, we could not possibly find a single word that would take the place of the phrases :—

The house by the river is a hotel. He came from the city.
 Those on the shelf are sold. The bucket hung in the well.
 The path of industry leads to success.
 My friend was with his regiment.

All such groups of words are called *phrases*.

Exercise 144.—1. Which phrases in these sentences are used like *adjectives* ?

2. Do those that are used like *adverbs* tell how, when, where, or how often ?

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. He came in haste. | 6. He pays his rent by the month. |
| 2. We are in fear. | 7. He finished his task with ease. |
| 3. People of intelligence live in this place. | 8. He came to this place after the time. |
| 4. Diamonds of great value are found in that field. | 9. Children like stories about fairies. |
| 5. My friend never comes behind time. | 10. The plan was made in secret. |
| | 11. We shall deal upon honor. |

3. Change the **phrases** to **adjectives** or **adverbs**, if you can think of any that will serve.

Exercise 145.—1. Use a **phrase** instead of the adjective or adverb.

- | | | |
|-------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Turkish rugs | 5. strong men | 9. go now |
| 2. juvenile books | 6. a marine disaster | 10. send it soon |
| 3. Java coffee | 7. spoke distinctly | 11. study diligently |
| 4. silver plates | 8. went homeward | 12. walk quietly |

2. Use an **adjective** or an **adverb** in place of the phrase.

- | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. a road along the river | 9. lands beyond the seas. |
| 2. a path up the mountain | 10. jewelry from France |
| 3. a man of strength | 11. treat all with respect |
| 4. a journey toward home | 12. came to this place |
| 5. a child at play | 13. polite at all times |
| 6. a trip through Europe | 14. speak in public |
| 7. women of fashion | 15. behave with propriety |
| 8. women of sense | 16. a bird on the wing |

178. All these phrases contain a noun or a pronoun with a word like *of, with, from, in, at, or by*, that connects it with what is modified. These words usually come first in the phrase, and they are called *Prepositions*.

Let us see what they do for our language that other words will not do.

179. If we wished to show that a clump of trees was the place where some boys were hiding, we might say, —

The boys hid in the trees.	The boys hid among the trees.
The boys hid under the trees.	The boys hid behind the trees.
The boys hid beyond the trees.	

The only difference is in the prepositions **in, under, among, etc.** Read the sentences *without* them, and you will see that nobody could tell what the *trees* had to do with the *hiding*; but *with* the prepositions we see that the word "trees" can be used to modify "hid" in various ways; for it is one thing to hide *under* the trees, another to hide *in* the trees, and so on.

Exercise 146. — Select the phrases, and tell what each one modifies. Thus: —

"From Plymouth" is a phrase used like an adverb to modify the verb "sailed."

1. The Mayflower sailed from Plymouth.
2. Magellan's ship sailed around the globe.
3. Beautiful pearls are found in the sea.
4. The early settlers hunted for gold.
5. The star rested over Bethlehem.
6. The English settled along the coast.
7. We shall return through the valley.
8. My friends will come in the next train.
9. Garfield lived in Ohio during his boyhood.
10. No one should be condemned without a trial.

180. Using a phrase as an adjective, we might say, —

The land around the grove.	The shade of the grove.
The walk from the grove.	The road to the grove.
The path through the grove.	

Here we modify or explain the meaning of the nouns *walk, land, shade, etc.*, by referring to the *grove*; but in order to do this we have to use a different preposition in each expression.

181. To show how one word can modify another, or what the meanings of two words have to do with each other, is to show the *relation* between them.

Exercise 147.—Select the **phrases**, and tell what each one modifies. Thus:—

“Of Rome” is a phrase used as an adjective to modify the noun “city.”

1. The city of Rome is the capital of Italy.
2. The road up the mountain is very rocky.
3. Goods for that firm were shipped yesterday.
4. The planet with the rings is Saturn.
5. Admission to college depends on attainments.
6. The town beyond Lexington is Concord.
7. Success without effort is impossible.
8. The fort near the city was captured first.
9. Icebergs from the Arctic Ocean melt in the Gulf Stream.
10. Journeys into the interior are rarely made.

182. The *Object* of a preposition is the noun or pronoun which is used with it to make a phrase.

183. A **Preposition** is a word that shows the relation between its object and some other word.

The word “preposition” means *what is placed before*.

184. A *Prepositional Phrase* is a phrase that contains a preposition and its object.

Exercise 148.—1. Select the **prepositions** in Exercises 146 and 147 and tell between what each shows the relation. Thus:—

“From” is a preposition, and shows the relation between its object “Plymouth” and the verb “sailed,” which the phrase modifies.

2. Mention the **prepositions** with the object of each, and tell whether the phrase is used as an adjective or an adverb.

1. Birds in great numbers fly over this grove. 2. Some with blue plumage have dropped a handful of feathers for me. 3. Quails from the north meet jays from the south. 4. There are eggs in the nest near the vine. 5. The mother bird is mottled at the throat and along the breast. 6. A bluebird nests under the eaves.

185. Since prepositional phrases can be used wherever an adverb can be, we find them modifying not only nouns, pronouns, and verbs, but *adjectives* and *adverbs* also. Thus:—

He was happy to **excess**, or He was **excessively** happy.
They are ripe **before the time**, or They are **prematurely** ripe.

In other cases it is harder to find what will take the place of the phrase.
As:—

This breeze is fresh **from the ocean**.
We are weary **with working**.

Here the four phrases modify adjectives as adverbs would.

Exercise 149.— Point out the **prepositional phrases**, and tell whether they modify adjectives or adverbs.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. Those trees are heavy with fruit. | 5. She is insane from anxiety. |
| 2. You are too cautious for me. | 6. Shall you be absent from home? |
| 3. The children were happy beyond measure. | 7. We found rosebuds pink at the tips. |
| 4. Always be polite to strangers. | 8. The grass was wet with dew. |

Exercise 150.— Here are the most common prepositions. Use each one in a sentence.

about	around	beyond	of	under
above	at	by	on	unto
across	before	down	over	up
after	behind	for	through	upon
against	below	from	till	with
along	beneath	in	to	within
among	between	into	toward	without

VII. CONJUNCTIONS.

186. We have learned that a preposition connects two other words by showing what one of them has to do with the other. We come now to words that connect in a different way.

In the sentence, **The sun sets and the moon appears**, how many verbs are there? What is the subject of each? Read the sentence, omitting the word **and**.

Here, then, are two sentences joined or tied together as one sentence. They might have been printed thus :—

The sun sets. The moon appears.

So we might unite three or more sentences into one, as :—

The sun sets, (and) the moon appears, and the stars come out,
or we might connect two sentences in different ways ; as, —

The sun has set, **and** the stars appear.

The sun has set, **for** the stars appear.

The sun has set, **but** the stars appear.

The sun has set, **therefore** the stars appear.

And seems to join the sentences together, as if they were about one subject ; **for** shows that one statement gives a reason for making the other ; and so on with other words of this sort, such as *but, therefore, or, nor, hence, however*.

187. There are not very many of these words ; and as they all connect or *join together* what we say, they are called *Conjunctions*.

They denote various relations between the expressions they connect, by showing what the connected parts have to do with each other. But, unlike prepositions, they always connect expressions of the same sort.

Exercise 151.—What sentences have been united to make the following ?

1. The birds have come and the flowers appear.
2. The ocean is rough for the breakers roar.
3. My pears are ripe and I am glad.
4. Some are very large but they are not yellow.
5. You cannot have tried earnestly or you would have succeeded.
6. The sky seems clear yet no stars are visible.
7. We cannot get money nor have we any food.
8. The king must win or he must forfeit his crown forever.

188. Such sentences as the preceding differ from those we have been studying ; for they are made up of *two or more simple sentences combined*. Instead of one predicate and the subject

of it, they have two or more predicates, each with a subject of its own.

Exercise 152.— Copy the sentences in the preceding exercise. Place vertical lines before and after each conjunction; and mark each subject and each verb. Inclose adjectives and phrases that modify the subject, in curves; inclose adverbs and phrases that modify the verb, in brackets. Insert the comma where it belongs. Thus:—

(Kind) friends have left us, | but | they will return [soon.]

189. Sentences made in this way, by uniting two or more simple sentences, are called *compound*.

190. A Simple Sentence is a sentence that contains only one subject and one predicate.

191. A Compound Sentence is one formed by uniting simple sentences.

The sentences united to form a compound sentence are called *clauses*.

192. Conjunctions are used to connect not only sentences, but also words or expressions in the same sentence when they are of the same kind and used in the same way.

1. Two or more *nouns* or *pronouns* may be connected in one sentence; as in,—

Music and painting are fine arts.

Did you ask *him* or *her* or *me*?

2. Several *verbs* may be joined together in one sentence; as in,—

Farmers *raise* and *sell* vegetables for the market.

3. So, too, we may wish to unite two or more *adjectives* or *adverbs* or *phrases* that modify the same word; as in,—

The *dead* or *dying* soldiers were left behind.

She walks *gracefully* and *firmly*, but *very slowly*.

The volume is *in the book-case*, or *on the table*.

Exercise 153.—Select the **conjunctions**, telling which words they connect and what kind of words are connected. Thus :—

“And” is a conjunction, and connects the two nouns “time” and “tide.”

1. Time and tide wait for no man.
2. Extreme poverty or great wealth may bring fame.
3. Some trees or shrubs would improve the place.
4. The days come and go in a ceaseless round.
5. Some people always promise, but never pay.
6. Who among you thinks or dreams of me?
7. All men live and die unknown by most of their fellows.
8. She plucked the daisies white and violets blue.
9. Michael Angelo was a painter and sculptor.
10. Now and then the whip-poor-will calls from the hill or the grove.
11. You and I are old and well-trying friends.
12. Shall we spend our time over worthless books and papers, or with the best authors?

193. A Conjunction is a word that connects sentences or parts of sentences.

The word “conjunction” means *that which joins together*.

VIII. INTERJECTIONS.

194. The seven kinds of words that we have now learned to distinguish make up all our sentences : for every word that is really part of a sentence is either a noun, a pronoun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb, a preposition, or a conjunction.

There are other words, however, that we use *with* sentences, but not exactly as *parts* of them. They are a different kind of language.

Thus, if any one says, **Oh!** you hurt me, the word **oh** is apt to be very much like a groan. So in, **Aha!** I have found you! **aha** takes the place of a shout; and in the following sentences, **Pshaw!** what a silly reason! **Poh!** that's nothing; **He came, alas!** too late, the words **pshaw**, **poh**, **alas** are about as expressive as a hiss, a puff, and a sigh.

195. When we use these words we do not assert anything, and very much of our meaning comes from the tone in which we speak; but everybody understands at once that we are pained or pleased, and so on, just as we tell by a dog's whining whether he is grieved or delighted.

Exercise 154. — Which words would express *feeling*, even if used by themselves?

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Oh! I have ruined my friend! | 4. Ho ho! Ahoy! A sail! A sail! |
| 2. O that I were rich again! | 5. Hurrah! We've won a victory. |
| 3. Ha! Can you not hear it? | 6. Hist! The squirrel sees you. |

196. Such words are called *Interjections* because they are thrown into the midst of what we say without having much to do with other words.

197. A different sort of interjection is used in expressions like this: **Bang!** There goes another gun! where the word **bang** is used merely to imitate a noise.

When we wish to represent these words by writing, we spell out the sounds as nearly as we can, just as we write *bow-wow* to represent the bark of a dog.

198. An **Interjection** is an exclamatory word or phrase used to express a feeling or a wish or to imitate some sound.

The word "interjection" means something *that is thrown into the midst of what we say*.

Exercise 155. — 1. Which of the following interjections can be used to express *joy*? Which to express *disgust*? Which imitate some natural sound?

alas	hurrah	bravo	fie	O dear
pshaw	ahoy	whoa	hollo	ha ha ha

2. Use each of them in a sentence.

SUMMARY: THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

199. All the words in our language can be divided into these *eight classes* called *Parts of Speech*.

- | | | |
|----------------------------------|--|--|
| 1. Nouns
and | } used to <i>name</i>
persons or things | } are always required
to make a sentence. |
| 2. Pronouns | | |
| 3. Verbs — used to <i>assert</i> | | |
| 4. Adjectives
and | } used only to <i>modify</i>
other words | } may help
to form
sentences. |
| 5. Adverbs | | |
| 6. Prepositions
and | } used to show the <i>connec-</i>
<i>tion</i> between other words | |
| 7. Conjunctions | | |
| 8. Interjections | } used to express
<i>feeling</i> | |

200. The Parts of Speech are the classes into which English words are divided according to their use in sentences.

201.

THE BUILDERS.

ALL are architects of fate,
Working in these walls of time ;
Some with massive deeds and great,
Some with ornaments of rhyme.

Nothing useless is, or low ;
Each thing in its place is best ;
And what seems but idle show
Strengthens and supports the rest.

For the structure that we raise,
Time is with materials filled ;
Our to-days and yesterdays
Are the blocks with which we build.

Truly shape and fashion these ;
Leave no yawning gaps between ;
Think not, because no man sees,
Such things will remain unseen.

In the elder days of art
Builders wrought with greatest care
Each minute and unseen part ;
For the Gods see every where.

Let us do our work as well,
 Both the unseen and the seen ;
 Make the house, where Gods may dwell,
 Beautiful, entire, and clean.

Else our lives are incomplete,
 Standing in these walls of time ;
 Broken stairways, where the feet
 Stumble as they seek to climb.

Build, to-day, then, strong and sure,
 With a firm and ample base,
 And ascending and secure
 Shall to-morrow find its place.

Thus alone can we attain
 To those turrets, where the eye
 Sees the world as one vast plain,
 And one boundless reach of sky.

— *Longfellow.*

Exercise 156. — 1. What is a metaphor? Find all the metaphors you can in "The Builders." 2. What is a simile? Find one. 3. Is it more natural to express one's self in poetry or in prose? 4. What is the advantage of using poetry? 5. May poetry be considered ornamental? 6. Explain *architects of fate, elder days of art, ornaments of rhyme, reach of sky, turrets*. 7. Why does Longfellow use the plural *Gods*? 8. Give the leading idea of the poem, and see whether it appears in every stanza.

9. Make a list of the nouns in the selection. 10. Of the verbs. 11. Of the adjectives. 12. Of the prepositional phrases. 13. Of the adverbs. 14. Change the second and third stanzas from the inverted to the natural order. 15. Mention three imperative sentences. 16. Give the pronouns and their antecedents.

CHAPTER XIV.

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

A. INCOMPLETE VERBS AND THEIR COMPLEMENTS.

202. In some of our sentences the verb alone is enough to make a complete assertion, or predication, about the subject, as in, — I *talk*, You *listen*, He *can write*, She *is thinking*, Time *flies*. But sometimes we use verbs that need to be followed by one or more words to complete the assertion, as in, — Flowers *are* fragrant, Time *is* money, The prince *will be* king, We *have sent* roses, Druggists *sell* medicine, The people *choose* the ruler.

All verbs belong to one or the other of these two great classes. They are used either as *verbs of complete predication*, or as verbs of *incomplete predication*. For the sake of brevity, we speak of them as *complete* verbs, or *incomplete* verbs.

Let us study the *incomplete* verbs first.

Exercise 157. — 1. What must the subject of a sentence contain? What must the predicate contain? Define a verb. A verb-phrase. How may verbs be modified?

2. In six of these sentences the meaning is complete. Which are they? Read the remaining six, supplying with each verb what is needed to complete the meaning.

The wind changed	We must hurry	We were
The air is	The ice was	The night has been
My friend called	The snow melted	The gale increased
The skating will be	Our fun stopped	Such storms are

3. Which of the verbs would you call *incomplete*? Give your reason.

203. An Incomplete Verb is one that requires the addition of one or more words to give the sentence distinct meaning.

204. A Complement is what must be added to an incomplete verb to give distinct meaning to the sentence.

205. A Complete Verb is one that requires no complement.

Exercise 158. — Point out the verb, and show what completes the meaning.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Game was scarce. | 5. Our hotel was distant. |
| 2. Our powder was wet. | 6. Our lunch-boxes were empty. |
| 3. We were hungry. | 7. Matters might have been worse. |
| 4. The pond was frozen. | 8. We were not disheartened. |

1. COPULATIVE VERBS.

206. In each of these sentences, —

I am cold.

He was asleep.

They were ill.

She is happy.

You are generous.

He slept.

They suffered.

He smiles, —

what is the complete predicate? In those of three words, does the verb or the adjective tell us more about the person mentioned? In those of two words, what describes the person mentioned?

Each of the verbs *slept*, *suffered*, *smiles*, is enough to give us some information; but the verbs *am*, *was*, *were*, *is*, *are*, only begin to tell us something that is expressed mostly by the adjectives. Of course there is no assertion without the verb; but in *He was asleep*, the adjective, being the word that describes what the subject names, is so important, that the verb seems *incomplete* without it. The two words together — *was asleep* — are very much like the single verb in *He slept*, for that means about the same thing.

Exercise 159. — 1. (a) Select the verbs, and tell which of them are modified by adverbs or prepositional phrases. (b) Which are incomplete, and what complements are added to them to describe what the subject names?

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Some grapes are sweet. | 8. Delays are often dangerous. |
| 2. They grow in the south. | 9. The crocus blooms in the spring. |
| 3. The wind will be cold. | 10. The early laws were severe. |
| 4. Celluloid is inflammable. | 11. My requests for dismissal have been useless. |
| 5. His remarks were instructive. | 12. The polar regions are uninhabitable. |
| 6. Not all birds are migratory. | |
| 7. The wind sighs plaintively around her grave. | |

2. Copy the preceding sentences, placing under the subject a *wavy* line, under the verb, a *straight* line, and under the complement a *straight* line over a *wavy* line. Thus :—

Some grapes are sweet.

207. In the sentences, The story *seems* doubtful, The clouds *look* stormy, we see incomplete verbs that by themselves have a little more meaning than the ones we have been studying, such as — *am, is, are, was, were, will be, have been,* etc.

But even these verbs serve principally to connect or *couple* the subject with something that describes what it names, and so they are called *Copulative* verbs.

There are not many of them, but they are very frequently used.

208. A Copulative Verb is one that has a complement that describes what the subject names.

The word "copulative" means *coupling* or connecting.

209. A Predicate Adjective is an adjective used as a complement with a copulative verb.

Exercise. Form sentences by using predicate adjectives with these copulative verbs :—

Seem, become, swell, sound, appear, feel, tastes, looks, grows.

210. In the sentences, —

Those men were *soldiers*.

Boys may be *heroes*.

Harrisburg is the *capital*.

Our guide will be an *Indian*, —

what kind of word is added to the verb to describe what the subject names?
What two words in each sentence name the same person or thing?

We see that a *noun*, as well as an adjective, may be used with the verb as a sort of second name, to describe what the subject stands for, or to explain what is meant.

211. A Predicate Noun is a noun used as the complement of a copulative verb.

212. Predicate adjectives and predicate nouns and their equivalents are called *subjective complements*.

213. A Subjective Complement is a complement that describes or explains the subject.

214. The verb, as we have seen, is the essential word in the predicate, but its complement is so important an element that the two together may be called the *base of the predicate*, or the *simple predicate*.

Exercise 160. — 1. Point out the **copulative verb** with its subject and complement, telling whether the latter is a noun or an adjective. Thus : —

In the second sentence "was" is the copulative verb, having the noun "trouble" for its subject, and the noun "poverty" for its complement.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. The man was poor. | 12. The cat's claws were sharp. |
| 2. His trouble was poverty. | 13. Turtles are amphibious. |
| 3. The water of the ocean is salt. | 14. The ship of the desert is the camel. |
| 4. Yonder vessel must be a schooner. | 15. Tigers are carnivorous. |
| 5. Farmers are independent. | 16. Tigers are flesh-eaters. |
| 6. Every barrel seems full. | 17. Henrietta shall be queen. |
| 7. Diamonds are costly. | 18. The boy is the shoemaker's best friend. |
| 8. Pure air is exhilarating. | 19. Idle boys become poor men. |
| 9. Quartz is a mineral. | 20. The sound of the evening bells was sweet. |
| 10. Our friends look anxious. | 21. The night grows dark. |
| 11. The lecture to-morrow will be short. | |

2. Copy those of the preceding sentences that have *nouns* as complements. Underline subject and verb as heretofore, and under the noun complement place a wavy line *over* a straight line. Thus : —

Yonder vessel is a schooner.

Exercise 161. — Write sentences having the following words as complements of copulative verbs. Use the marking as in preceding exercises.

mineral	old-fashioned	fatigued	Frenchman
combustible	mechanic	librarian	skillful
liquid	ingenious	Japanese	patriot

2. TRANSITIVE VERBS.

Exercise 162. — 1. Try to complete the sentences that seem unfinished, and explain why they seem so.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. It is raining | 7. The nests are in the hay |
| 2. Who opened | 8. Yesterday I had a fall |
| 3. We can look for eggs | 9. Somebody fired |
| 4. Come to the barn | 10. I was frightened |
| 5. I will bring | 11. Of course I broke |
| 6. We shall easily find | 12. The fall almost killed |

2. Do any of them lack the verb? What kind of word is needed?

Exercise 163. — 1. Give the complete predicate of each of these sentences.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. The bright sun rises. | 7. The trees shed their leaves. |
| 2. The March winds blow. | 8. Farmers sell butter. |
| 3. A robin sings on the bough. | 9. Hail destroys the crops. |
| 4. The lilacs blossom. | 10. The archer bends the bow. |
| 5. The weather was mild. | 11. The ground looks white. |
| 6. The skies are clear. | 12. Our summer is over. |

2. (a) Which of these verbs assert that what the subject names *does* something, or performs some *action*? (b) Which represents the actor as doing something to a person or to anything else? (c) What *action* is asserted of the winds? (d) What word in the ninth sentence tells what the hail *does*? (e) What does the hail act *upon*? (f) Who performs the action of bending? (g) What object *receives* the action? (h) What is the object of "shed"? (i) Of "sell"?

Exercise 164. — 1. Give the **object** of these verbs; that is, tell the word that shows what receives the action: —

- | | |
|---|----------------------------------|
| 1. I have sold my yacht. | 5. They founded a new nation. |
| 2. He has bought a farm. | 6. The engine has broken a rail. |
| 3. Who wrote the prescription? | 7. Who will take the tickets? |
| 4. The Pilgrims left their native land. | 8. We cannot speak French. |
| | 9. Ask the meaning of the word. |

2. Copy some of these sentences, marking subject and verb as before. Place two lines under the object. Thus:—

The choppers fell the trees.

215. In nearly all the sentences in Ex. 164, the verb alone gives considerable information about the subject; but yet it would seem very incomplete to say,—

The trees **shed.** Farmers **sell.** Hail **destroys,**—

for any one would wait to hear *what* the trees shed, *what* the farmers sell, and so on. We see, then, that there are still *other* verbs, such as *shed*, *sell*, *destroys*, *bends*, that we must call *incomplete*, since they have so much need of an object to fill out the meaning.

216. *These* verbs assert that some action is performed that passes over to and affects something else. The complement shows who or what it is that receives this action. So they are called *Transitive*, which means “passing over.”

127. We cannot tell whether a verb is transitive or not except by its *use*, for sometimes the verb without an object expresses as much as we wish to say, or else it has a different meaning. Thus, we may say, The man *stopped* the runaway horse, or The runaway horse *stopped* at the foot of the hill. In the first sentence the action denoted by the verb passes over to the *object* “horse.” In the second sentence the action does not pass over, and the verb “stopped” is said to be used *intransitively*.

Exercise 165.— Tell whether the verb is transitive or intransitive; *i.e.*, whether it has an **object** or not.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. That blind man never saw. | 7. Our national flag flies from the mast-head. |
| 2. I saw my friend on his return. | 8. The schooner in the offing flies a signal of distress. |
| 3. The bells ring merrily over the snow. | 9. The farmer plows his fields. |
| 4. The sexton rings the bell. | 10. The ships plow through the waves. |
| 5. The trees sway in the wind. | |
| 6. How the wind sways the trees! | |

218. A Transitive verb is one that has a complement showing who or what receives the action expressed by the verb.

219. The Object of a transitive verb is the word that denotes the receiver of the action.

3. COMPLEMENTS.

220. We have already learned about two kinds of complements:—

I. The complement of a *copulative* verb refers to the subject, and is called a *Subjective Complement*.

Any word or phrase that can modify a noun or a pronoun may be a subjective complement; as, —

Some plants are **poisonous**. (adjective)

Your friends are **musicians**. (noun)

It cannot have been **he**. (pronoun)

Time is **of great value**. (phrase)

221. II. The complement of a *transitive* verb is the *Object* of it, and has nothing to do with the subject of the sentence, but only with the verb.

Objects are the most important and necessary kind of modifiers, and this explains why they are called *complements* of the verb.

222. Any noun or pronoun, or any phrase or clause used like a noun, may be used with a transitive verb as the object of it; as, —

The jury has found **a verdict**. (noun)

We have proved **him** innocent. (pronoun)

Fear **to do wrong**. (phrase)

Tell only **what is true**. (clause)

223. III. Objective Complements. There are some transitive verbs that must often have a *second* complement to complete their meaning. Thus, —

Age *makes* a man **feeble**.

Elizabeth *made* Raleigh a **knight**.

Ice *keeps* water **cool**.

Call your dog **Bruno**.

224. In "Age **makes** a man **feeble**" the verb **makes** alone does not express the action performed on a man, for we need the adjective **feeble** to show what quality is produced in him. We mean not "Age **makes** a man," but "Age **makes-feeble**, or enfeebles, a man."

So, too, the meaning of **made** in the second sentence is *completed* by the noun **knight**, which shows that knighthood was conferred upon Raleigh, — as if we had said "Elizabeth **made-knight**, or knighted, Raleigh."

225. Words used to complete the meaning of a transitive verb, and at the same time to add some name or quality to the object of it, are called *Objective Complements*, — "objective" because they refer to the object, and "complements" because they complete the predicate.

Exercise 166. — Select the **objective complements**, and tell how each is used. In marking the analysis, underline the objective complement to show its connection with the verb, and inclose it in angles as a modifier of the object. Thus: **The snow paints the fields (white).**

1. Fear made the soldiers pale. 2. We shall tint our walls green. 3. The people made Lincoln president. 4. Time makes the worst enemies friends. 5. The warm weather has made the ice thin. 6. The Turks call their ruler Sultan. 7. The people called Paul, Jupiter. 8. The president has appointed Mr. Clark postmaster. 9. Get the horses ready immediately. 10. The club has chosen Roy captain. 11. We have appointed Henry Wise our agent. 12. Lincoln set the slaves free. 13. The merchant sold his stock short.

226. A word used as the second complement of a transitive verb, and referring to the object of it, is called an **Objective Complement**.

Exercise 167. — 1. Use these verbs in sentences with **objective complements** : —

struck ; make ; named ; appoint ; elect ; swept ; called ; dyed ; chose ; colored.

Exercise 168. — Select the **complements** of the verbs, and tell whether they are *objects* or *subjective complements* ; that is, whether they refer to the subject or only modify the verb. Which sentences contain objective complements ?

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Rivers to the ocean run. | 5. I can find no fault with him. |
| 2. The reason is very plain. | 6. A long rain will be welcome. |
| 3. The stars look very small. | 7. No one is ever too old to learn. |
| 4. Our souls are immortal. | 8. Every day brings its own duties. |

9. Good habits are most easily formed in youth.
10. We are the heirs of past generations.
11. A man's actions show his character.
12. The greatest English poet is Shakespeare.
13. He made money his chief aim.
14. A rolling stone gathers no moss.
15. The betrayer of his country is a traitor.
16. Every man must educate himself.
17. Praising what is lost makes remembrance dear.
18. Agriculture is the parent of all industries.
19. Mountain chains rob the winds of their moisture.
20. Wisdom's ways are ways of pleasantness.
21. War makes men bold.
22. The violets open their soft blue eyes.
23. Of all our senses sight is the most important.
24. Money alone can never make a man happy.
25. Love makes labor light.
26. King Humbert lived beloved and died lamented.
27. In France and Germany sugar is made from beets.
28. Despatch is the soul of business.

227. Complete Verbs. Copulative and transitive verbs are the only ones that always need complements. Most others are complete in themselves. If we say,—

The sun rises, The lilacs blossom,

the assertion is complete without adding anything; for nobody could ask *what* the sun rises, or *what* the lilacs blossom. The rising or the blossoming does not necessarily affect anything else. Such verbs are called verbs of *complete predication*, or briefly, *Complete verbs*.

Exercise 169.— 1. (a) In the following sentences, which verbs assert an action that is **complete** in itself? (b) Which assert actions performed on or **received by** some person or thing? Give their complements.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. The morning dawned. | 5. Perseverance brings success. |
| 2. The bridge fell at noon. | 6. Cotton grows in Louisiana. |
| 3. The choppers fell the trees. | 7. Old Ironsides at anchor lay. |
| 4. The hunter lost the trail. | 8. Many fruits ripen in September. |

9. Our expected friends have arrived.
10. The angry man should control his passion.
11. We should hide the faults of others.
12. The grass withers and the flowers fade.
13. Time and tide wait for no man.
14. The first gun at Sumter aroused the nation.
15. The melancholy days have come.
16. The city of Florence contains many palaces.
17. The farmers sow their seed in the spring.
18. If you plant in youth, you will reap in age.
19. He will spend the winter in Spain.
20. The fire in the woods burned for several days.
21. A fearful gale blew the ship out of its course.

2. Copy some of the preceding sentences, marking the subject, the verb, and the complement as before.

Complete verbs are often called *Intransitive*.

228. Some verbs that are generally copulative may be used as complete verbs. The very common verb *be* — am, is, are, was, were — sometimes means *exist*, as in,

The time never *was* when God *was* not.

Generally when this verb is thus used the sentence is introduced by *there*. Can you tell why ?

Thus we say, — *There is* no hope, not, No hope *is*.
 There has been a severe storm.
 There will be a large crop of wheat.

Exercise 170. — Which of these verbs are **complete** and which are **copulative** ?

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| 1. Delays are dangerous. | 7. We must grow old or die. |
| 2. Yes, but there will be no delays. | 8. Nothing will grow in this climate. |
| 3. A cat may look at a king. | 9. There is a king all must obey. His name is Death. |
| 4. A fool may look wise. | 10. Ah ! sense-bound heart and blind !
Is nought but what we see ? |
| 5. What will become of the acorn ? | |
| 6. It will become an oak. | |

Exercise 171. — 1. Use the following in sentences, first as **complete** verbs, and then as **transitive** verbs, as in Ex. 169 : —

write	set	reap	cheat	give
rides	succeed	learns	lose	sail

2. Select the verbs in Exs. 130 and 133, and tell whether they are *complete*, *copulative*, or *transitive*, and why.

Exercise 172. — 1. Construct sentences, using the following as subjects of **complete** verbs : —

lightning	war	time	spiders
moon	smoke	clocks	petroleum

2. Use the following as subjects of **transitive** verbs : —

reporters	avalanche	artists	locomotives
electricity	physicians	bankers	earthquakes

3. Use the same words as **objects** of transitive verbs.

4. Write five sentences containing **copulative** verbs with adjectives as complements.

5. Write five with *noun* complements.

B. THE BASE OF A SENTENCE.

229. The materials that we must have for making the shortest of sentences are — a *subject* with a noun or a pronoun in it; and a *predicate* with a verb in it.

(a) *Two* words are required, — something talked about, and something said; as, —

Night comes.	Hope departs.	Life ends.
Look you!	Who calls?	

(b) But when the verb is *incomplete*, — that is, when the sentence would be almost meaningless without some other word in the predicate, — then *three* words at least are required; as, —

We are children. Youth is hopeful. Love makes friends.

(c) When we have a transitive verb that requires a second complement, *four* words are needed; as, —

Love makes labor light.

(d) When instead of a verb we have a *verb-phrase*, the number of essential words may be still larger; as, —

Drinking may have caused death.

230. In every simple sentence, then, there are these *two, three, or four* foundation elements, upon which all the rest is built up, and which we call the *Base*.

231. *The Base of a Sentence*, or what it needs more than anything else to give it meaning, is formed as shown below.

THE BASE OF A SIMPLE SENTENCE			
Subject	Predicate		
Subject	Complete Verb	_____	_____
Subject	Copulative Verb	Subjective Complement	_____
Subject	Transitive Verb	Object	_____
Subject	Transitive Verb	Object	Objective Complement

232. The Base of a Sentence is its Simple Subject, Verb, and Complement without their modifiers.

The part of the predicate found in the Base is called the *Simple Predicate*.

Exercise 173.—1. Read the base of each sentence, or mark it by underlining its elements in this way :—

Under the **subject** draw a wavy line ~~~~~

Under the **verb** draw a straight line _____.

Under the **object** draw two straight lines =====.

Under the **subjective complement** draw a straight line with a wavy line under it for **adjectives** ~~~~~;

Over it for **nouns or pronouns** ~~~~~.

Under the **objective complement** draw a straight line and inclose it in angles. Thus :—

The sun always shines somewhere.

Your favor will be very acceptable.

1900 was not a leap-year.

The sentinel stars set their watch in the sky.

Love makes labor < light >.

1. Our good deeds live after us.
 2. Seconds are the gold-dust of time.
 3. The orbit of the earth is elliptical.
 4. An artist's studio should be his workroom.
 5. He mixes his paints on a palette.
 6. Vaccination may prevent the small-pox.
 7. Most male citizens over twenty-one can vote.
 8. At sea the distant clouds seem low.
 9. They made him captain of the foot-ball eleven.
 10. The old mayor climbed the belfry tower.
 11. Joan of Arc perished at the stake.
 12. Regret for a misspent past will be useless.
 13. My workmen were once my employers.
 14. I shall make the price satisfactory.
 15. A collection of curiosities may become a museum.
 16. The miser willed his property to a college.
 17. Stone walls do not a prison make.
 18. Young hearts never grow old.
 19. We have tinted our walls green.
 20. Foolish people often feel wise.
 21. The Muses were the goddesses of art.
2. Treat other exercises in the same way, until the base of a sentence can be recognized and described very readily.

C. MODIFIERS.

Questions.—1. What is a sentence? An assertion? What are the essential parts of one? 2. How many and what kinds of words *must* be used to make an assertion? 3. Illustrate from these sentences the meaning of "subject," "verb," "complement," "base," "modifier," and "adjective."

Cowardly men are generally poor soldiers.

These fine steamers now make regular trips.

4. What kind of steamers is meant? Which ones? 5. What words modify the verbs? What word describes the trips? 6. How would you say the subject and the object are modified?

233. Sometimes our sentences consist of only the two or three words that we have called the *base*; but generally we find it necessary to *modify* some part of the base in order to express our meaning exactly.

Thus, instead of "Sheep furnish wool," or "They came," we might wish to say, "*My son's sheep, a foreign breed, furnish wool of fine quality,*" or "*They unexpectedly came yesterday | from town | to welcome us.*"

By adding modifiers to the base, we build up fuller sentences, and it is about the **construction or building up of sentences** that we are to study now.

1. ADJECTIVES AS MODIFIERS.

234. We know that the subject, the object, and sometimes the subjective complement, is a *noun* or a *pronoun*, and that adjectives may modify nouns wherever they occur; hence we conclude that —

Adjectives may be added to either the *subject* or the *complement* as modifiers. Thus: —

Australian sheep furnish **fine** wool.

These | black sheep furnish **some | valuable** wool.

Glass is a **brittle, transparent** substance.

Adjectives thus added directly to a noun, i.e., without the intervention of a verb, are called **Attributive Adjectives**.

Exercise 174. — 1. (a) **Classify** each sentence; that is, tell its kind. (b) Read the **base**. (c) Point out the **subject** and its **modifiers**. (d) Point out the **verb**. (e) Point out the **complement**, tell its **kind**, and give its **modifiers**. Thus: —

The first is a simple, assertive sentence. Its base is *dogs respect masters*. The subject *dogs* is modified by the adjective *savage*. The verb is *respect*. The object *masters* is modified by the adjective *stern*.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| 1. Savage dogs respect stern masters. | 5. Such long journeys are tiresome. |
| 2. Coming events cast long shadows. | 6. A low barometer indicates stormy weather. |
| 3. Has any man a heavy coat ? | |
| 4. Take the broad, open path. | 7. Hidden fire makes black smoke. |

- | | |
|---|---|
| 8. An uncontrolled appetite is a relentless master. | 12. Destructive freshets have injured the late crops. |
| 9. The Polish salt-mines seem inexhaustible. | 13. Is that snow-capped mountain an extinct volcano ? |
| 10. The longest day has an end. | 14. Tell no long stories. |
| 11. Your barking dogs are cowardly. | |

2. Copy the preceding sentences, and mark the base as before. Inclose each subject-modifier in curves (), and each complement-modifier in angles (). Thus :—

(These) sheep have <long> horns.

- Write sentences to show the use of adjectives as part of the base.
- Write six that illustrate their use as modifiers of different parts of the base.

235. This simple method of marking the analysis will be found very useful in ordinary written work, as well as in illustrative blackboard exercises, since it does not require the re-writing or rearrangement of the sentence.

Every subject is to be marked with a wavy line, every verb with a straight line. The complement is always marked with two lines, — both also straight for the object, since that modifies only the verb ; but one of them wavy for the subjective complement, since that is not only a part of the predicate, but is also related to the subject. The predicate noun is distinguished from the predicate adjective by placing the wavy line first.

The (objective complement) is underlined to show its relation to the verb, and inclosed in angles as a modifier of the complement.

Every (subject-modifier) of whatever kind is to be inclosed in curves, every [verb-modifier] in brackets, and every (complement-modifier) in angles.

Independent expressions are to be left unmarked.

Secondary modifiers may be marked with arrows, as shown later.

2. ADVERBS AS MODIFIERS.

236. Besides a noun or a pronoun, the base of a sentence always, as we know, contains a *verb*, and it sometimes contains an *adjective* as the complement of the verb. We know, too, that if a verb or an adjective needs a modifier to finish the meaning, an *Adverb* may be used. *E.g.* :—

The man approached cautiously. Children sometimes make mistakes, —

where the *verbs* are modified ; and —

Some pine trees are **perfectly** straight. The old elm was **almost** dead, —
where the *adjective complements* are modified.

Exercise 175. — 1. Point out the **principal parts** of each sentence and their **modifiers**, as in the preceding exercise.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. All the bells ring mournfully. | 8. He probably came here lately. |
| 2. Some faces look very sad. | 9. Those stories are hardly credible. |
| 3. The whistle always shrieks wildly. | 10. The sun always shines brightly somewhere. |
| 4. The summons is quite welcome. | 11. Most early navigators were very venturesome. |
| 5. This spot is delightfully cool. | 12. I have been too idle heretofore. |
| 6. Such bright days rarely come. | |
| 7. The officers were criminally negligent. | |

2. Copy each sentence, underline the base, and mark the modifiers. Put verb-modifiers in brackets []. Thus :—

(Those) ships [frequently] make (long) voyages.

We are [never] (entirely) alone.

3. Write four sentences illustrating the use of adverbs as *modifiers* of different parts of the base.

3. ADJECTIVE AND ADVERB PHRASES.

237. We have built up a sentence by modifying the base with adjectives and adverbs. The next step will be to give to these added words *modifiers of their own*.

Thus, instead of *high, always, and many*, in —

High winds always injure many trees,

we may modify each with an adverb, and say, —

Unusually high winds almost always destroy very many trees.

Here it is easy to see that "destroy," for instance, is modified not by **always** alone, but by the phrase **almost always**, since the adverb **almost** is added to show that we do not mean *quite* always.

How is "winds" modified? "Trees"? Does **very many** take the place of an adjective or an adverb? What may adverbs modify?

(a) These little *phrases* ("unusually high," etc.) are used as modifiers very much like single words; and when a noun or a verb has several modifiers, some of them may be words and some phrases. Thus:—

Some | large | thrifty | rather graceful | trees.
They unexpectedly came slowly and very quietly.

Exercise 176.—1. Give the **base** of each sentence and its **modifiers**. Select the modifiers that are phrases, and tell whether they are like **adjectives** or like **adverbs**.

1. Very few persons are perfectly happy.
2. We beheld the dark blue sky.
3. Will forgetful boys become good business men?
4. He displayed intensely disagreeable manners.
5. Hereafter I shall study more diligently.
6. Some rather dull boys have become very famous men.

2. Copy, and mark the base and modifiers. Thus:—

(This) (same) person [very recently] made (a) (rather tiresome) speech.

3. Write four sentences containing **modified adjectives** and **modified adverbs**.

238. An Adjective phrase consists of an adjective with its modifiers.

239. An Adverb phrase consists of an adverb with its modifiers.

When an adjective or an adverb takes a modifier *of any sort*, we have a phrase; as, **beautiful in color**, **suitable for driving**, where an adjective is modified by a prepositional phrase also, **a little cautiously**, **ten feet farther**, where an adverb is modified by a noun phrase.

4. ADJECTIVE AND ADVERB CLAUSES.

240. Adjective Clauses. We have seen that the base of a sentence may be modified by adjectives and adjective phrases. Let us study still another form of modifiers.

Shortest days come in December.
Days that are shortest come in December.

1. How do these sentences differ in *meaning*? 2. How do they differ in *form*? 3. What words describe "days" in each sentence? 4. To what part of speech does *shortest* belong? *Are*? What does *that* stand for?

241. The expression *that are shortest* describes *days* just as the attributive adjective *shortest* does. But it contains a subject, *that*, and a predicate, *are shortest*, made up of the verb *are*, and the predicate adjective *shortest*. It must therefore be a sentence. It means little, however, to say only *that are shortest*, for its meaning depends upon the other sentence, *Days come in December*. It is used to describe *days* like an adjective.

242. We call these sentences that are parts of longer sentences *clauses*. A clause that has meaning when used alone is an *independent* clause. It is the *principal* clause in the sentence. The clause that *depends* on the rest of the sentence for meaning is a *dependent* clause. It is *subordinate* to the principal clause.

243. A Clause is a sentence which is part of a longer sentence.

244. An Independent or Principal Clause is one that is complete in meaning when used alone.

245. A Dependent or Subordinate Clause is one that has the use of an adjective, adverb, or noun.

246. An Adjective Clause is one used like an adjective.

Exercise 177.—Point out the principal and the dependent clauses. What does each adjective clause modify.

1. Time *that is once lost*, is lost forever. 2. Funston was the officer *who captured Aguinaldo*. 3. Read the amendment *which freed the slaves*. 4. A house that is divided against itself cannot stand. 5. That life is long which answers life's great ends. 6. The Pyrenees are the mountains that separate France and Spain. 7. No man who needs a monument ever ought to have one. 8. 'Tis heaven alone that is given away. 9. The evil that men do lives after them.

247. Adverb Clauses. Just as some dependent clauses are used as adjectives, others are used as adverbs. Thus,—Come

now. Come at once. Come when I call you. Stand here. Stand in this place. Stand where you are.

1. In these imperative sentences how is *come* modified? 2. What expressions tell *where* one is to stand? 3. Which of the modifiers are words? Phrases? Clauses? 4. Give the subject and predicate of each clause. 5. Use these clauses in sentences as modifiers: — when the bell rings; — before the car started; — because it was closed.

248. An Adverb clause is one used like an adverb.

Exercise 178.—Select the adverb clauses, and tell what they modify.

1. The book was found where you put it. 2. They will do as they are bidden. 3. Come as the waves come when navies are stranded. 4. Think of the future when you spend money needlessly. 5. He whistled as he went for want of thought. 6. Scatter flowers where our heroes lie buried.

5. PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES.

249. There are several other kinds of modifying expressions which have the meaning and use of adjectives and adverbs.

250. A Prepositional Phrase may always be used like an adjective or adverb. Thus:—

As part of the *base*, like a predicate adjective:

Our utensils were of wood (= wooden).

These savages are from Africa (= African).

As *modifiers*:

The low mountains (*of Vermont*) contain marble.

The layers, or beds, extend [*for miles*].

They show great difference (*in color*).

I am happy (*beyond measure*).

Burns was a man (*of genius*).

What part of the base does each phrase modify? What modifiers are there besides the phrases?

Exercise 179.—1. Copy, underline the **base**, and mark the **modifiers**, as in preceding exercises.

1. The boyhood of Lincoln was spent in poverty.
2. The path of industry is the path to success.

3. The needle of the compass may not always point toward the north.
4. The invention of letters was attributed to the Phoenicians.
5. The Queen of Sheba saw the wisdom of Solomon.
6. Twenty slaves were brought to Virginia in 1619.
7. Lincoln emancipated the slaves in 1863.
8. The weight of evidence is against you.
9. A dull, heavy cloud of vapor hangs gloomily in the sky above our heads.

2. How many words are **needed** to make a prepositional phrase? Of what kind must they be? In the ninth sentence, how many modifiers has "cloud"? How many has "hangs"?

251. Modified Prepositional Phrases. The *base* of the phrase, that is, the preposition with its object alone, does not always make a *complete* modifier, any more than does an adjective or an adverb alone. Thus:—

"Wise men" means the same as "men of wisdom," but "very wise men" would mean "men of great wisdom," a modifier being added to the object. So too in "The state is rich in forests of pine" the object in the phrase "in forests" is modified by another phrase "of pine."

252. These examples show how the object of a preposition may be modified; and we must remember that a noun *may always have modifiers*, no matter how or where it is used.

(a) A modifier of any part of the base may be called a *primary* modifier; a modifier of what is already a modifier may be called a *secondary* modifier.

Exercise 180.—1. Give the **base** of each phrase; *i. e.*, the leading **preposition** and its **object**, and tell how each object is modified.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| 1. in the near future. | 7. along the shores of the broad Pacific. |
| 2. without many friends. | 8. near the sources of the longest river of Africa. |
| 3. after very long delay. | 9. after a cold, cheerless journey in the rain. |
| 4. with few signs of failure. | 10. two mounds of snow between. |
| 5. the icy, rattling crags among. | |
| 6. in the center of the solar system | |

2. **Write** six sentences in which prepositional phrases are used to modify the *three* different parts of the base.

253. A Prepositional phrase consists of a preposition and its object with or without modifiers.

6. POSSESSIVES : MODIFIERS OF ANOTHER KIND.

254. Sometimes a word is adjective *by nature*, like those we have been studying; but a word that seems to be something else may be also adjective *by use*. In these sentences —

Edward's bicycle has just broken down,
They heard the horse's hoofs,
Your yacht was in the race, —

can you find any words *used* like adjectives? Do they seem at all like nouns or verbs? To whom did the bicycle belong? What hoofs were heard? Who owned the yacht?

255. Such words as *Edward's*, *horse's*, *your*, are called *Possessives*, because, if the statements just made are true, we can say —

Edward had, or "possessed," a bicycle,
The horse had, or "possessed," hoofs,
You had, or "possessed," a yacht, —

and we see that they are really *nouns* or *pronouns* changed a little from the common form, and *used like adjectives* to describe the thing mentioned by showing to whom or to what it belongs.

Exercise 181. — 1. Mention all the *possessives*, and tell what nouns they modify : —

1. England's navy is very powerful.
2. Men's good deeds may live forever.
3. Children's manners show their training.
4. Napoleon ended his days at St. Helena.
5. We decorate her grave with flowers.
6. Your money will be used for soldiers' monuments.
7. Is there a proverb about kings' daughters?
8. Greenland's warm climate is its greatest treasure.
9. Winter's rude tempests are gathering now.

10. Wisdom's ways are ways of pleasantness.
11. You'll find hornets' nests there.
12. Does Ecuador's largest coin equal our double eagle ?

2. Change the possessive nouns to **prepositional phrases**, thus : "Greenland's climate" means "The climate of Greenland."

3. Analyze the sentences by marking base and modifiers.

256. To make the possessive form, *nouns* commonly take an apostrophe and *s* ['s]; but if an *s* has already been added to make the word plural, they take only an apostrophe [']. [The *pronouns* are changed in various ways; *you, your; they, their; he, his; I, my; she, her, etc.*]

257. A Possessive is a special form of a noun or a pronoun used to show whose property is meant.

7. APPOSITIVES: NOUNS USED AS SECOND NAMES.

258. Another sort of modifier appears in this example :

This man is James Hooper, treasurer.

The nouns **James Hooper** and **treasurer** evidently refer to the same person, and we understand that James Hooper *is treasurer*. So, speaking of two men *who are machinists* we might say : —

Hardy and Greene, **machinists**, have just failed.

Exercise 182. — In the following sentences : —

My brother Rudolphus is coming home.

I, William, am to be married.

William Shakespeare, poet, died in 1616.

William Shakespeare, confectioner, lives in D street.

We had reached that great wheat market, Chicago, —

what word shows which brother is meant? Which show who is meant by "William Shakespeare"? By "I"? In the fifth find two names for one thing.

259. A noun is often added to another noun to describe or explain its meaning, when one name is not enough. The noun

thus added is called an *appositive*, and is just as much a modifier as an adjective is, though, unlike an adjective, it almost always *follows* the word it modifies.

The word *appositive* means "put by the side of."

Exercise 183. — 1. Select the **appositives**, and tell to what words they refer.

1. The historian Macaulay wrote "The Lays of Ancient Rome."
2. The river Nile overflows its banks annually.
3. The seventh month, July, was named in honor of Julius Cæsar.
4. The children's favorite was Eugene Field, the poet.
5. The New England festival, Thanksgiving, comes in November.
6. The capital of New Hampshire, Concord, is on the Merrimac.
7. We boys have neglected our lessons.
8. She advised us girls to be patient.
9. You carpenters have a busy life.

2. Make sentences, using the first five appositives as subjects modified by appositives.

260. An **Appositive** is a noun used with another noun or with a pronoun to explain its meaning.

8. POSSESSIVE AND APPOSITIVE PHRASES.

261. Possessive and appositive phrases will be easy for us to understand because, like adjective and adverb phrases, they are only possessives and appositives, with their modifiers.

262. We must remember that possessives and appositives are only *used* like adjectives; they are not what we *call* adjectives, but are really nouns or pronouns. Hence they have the same modifiers that other nouns and pronouns have.

Thus, instead of *girl's* hair, we might wish to speak of

This young Japanese girl's hair,

using a possessive phrase in which the adjectives **this**, **young**, and **Japanese** all modify the possessive *girl's*.

So with appositives :—

My companion, **an old friend from Ohio**, was very entertaining.

Here **an, old,** and **from Ohio** are added to the appositive as secondary modifiers.

263. An Appositive phrase is an appositive with all its modifiers.

264. A Possessive phrase is a possessive with all its modifiers.

Exercise 184. — 1. Tell which phrases in the following are **appositive** and which **possessive**; and give the modifiers in each phrase.

1. Charles Dickens, the great English novelist, died in 1870.

2. The Moon, the satellite of the Earth, is about two thousand miles in diameter.

3. In 1807, Robert Fulton, an American engineer, sailed the first steamboat, the *Clermont*, on the Hudson.

4. Benjamin Franklin, a distinguished American statesman, was born in Boston in 1706.

5. Who would disregard a loving mother's counsel?

6. The brave colonel's reply was, "I'll try, sir."

7. Whittier, the Quaker poet, wrote *Snow Bound, A Winter Idyl*.

8. Nathaniel Hawthorne, author of *The Marble Faun*, was born in Salem, a city in Massachusetts.

9. Cortez, the conqueror of Mexico, was a Spaniard.

10. Remember your last year's experiences.

11. This is a debt of many years' standing.

12. Now comes the morning star, day's harbinger.

2. Analyze the preceding sentences by copying and marking.

Exercise 185. — Make sentences containing these words **modified by appositive words or phrases.**

Gen. Grant	Harrisburg	author	Chicago
steamboat	David	inventor	Amazon
Edward VII.	student	Fanueil Hall	commander

9. APPOSITIVE CLAUSES.

265. Some dependent *clauses* are used as appositive modifiers just as nouns are. Thus, —

The fact *that life is short* should keep us busy.

The message, *that peace was declared*, flashed over the wires.

Harvey made the discovery *that the blood circulates*.

1. Point out the clauses in these sentences. 2. Tell the subject and predicate of each. 3. What word does each one explain ?

266. A Noun Clause is one used like a noun.

The use of noun clauses as subjects and complements will be shown later in the book.

Exercise 186. — Select the noun clauses, and tell what each one modifies. Show the subject and the predicate.

1. The rumor that the steamer had been burnt was unfounded. 2. The statement that the earth is round is now undisputed. 3. The question whether I go or stay is still unanswered. 4. The wonder grew that one small head could carry all he knew. 5. Do not forget this, — that the door to success is always marked "Push."

267. A Complex Sentence is one containing a principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses.

SUMMARY: MODIFIERS.

268. We now understand how it is that a sentence may be very long; for it may contain several clauses, and we must often modify a word again and again before we can express exactly what we mean.

The *simplest modifiers for each part of speech* are given below. [See Chap. 25.]

Nouns and Pronouns may have for modifiers, —

- | | | |
|----------------------------------|---|---|
| 1. An Adjective | } | <p>word : Kind <i>hearts</i> are more than coronets.</p> <p>phrase : This is an extremely interesting <i>book</i>.</p> <p>clause : Those that came remained.</p> |
| 2. A Prepositional Phrase | | <p>The <i>life of Livingstone</i> was <i>one of self-sacrifice</i>.</p> |
| 3. A Possessive | } | <p>word : His <i>energy</i> was his only <i>capital</i>.</p> <p>phrase : Every man's <i>work</i> shall be manifest.</p> |
| 4. An Appositive | } | <p>word : The <i>poet Milton</i> was blind.</p> <p>phrase : <i>Homer, the Greek poet</i>, was blind.</p> <p>clause : The fact that he is dead is proved.</p> |

Verbs, Adjectives, and Adverbs may have for modifiers, —

1. **An Adverb** { **word:** He *gives twice* who *gives quickly*.
 { **phrase:** *Shall we not strive more constantly?*
 { **clause:** Go **when he calls you**.
2. **A Prepositional Phrase:** *Look not mournfully into the past*.

The other parts of speech are very rarely modified.

KINDS OF SENTENCES: SUMMARY.

269. We have learned that in their *meaning* or use sentences are of three kinds: —

Assertive (or **Declarative**), containing statements.

Interrogative, asking questions.

Imperative, making commands or requests.

270. In *form*, sentences may be of four kinds, —

Simple, having one independent clause.

Compound, having two or more independent clauses.

Complex, having one independent clause and at least one dependent clause.

Complex Compound, having at least two independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses.

271. The *subject* of a sentence may be —

Simple, A *friend* in need is a friend indeed.

Compound, *Honor and fame* from no condition rise.

The *essential predicate* of a sentence may be —

Simple, Slowly the mist o'er the meadow *was creeping*.

Compound, In Him we *live and move and have* our being.

The *complement* of a verb may be —

Simple, Honor the *memory* of our fallen comrades.

It seems but an idle *tale*.

Life is too *short* to be wasted.

Compound, Bring *roses* sweet and *lilies* fair.

Franklin was a *philosopher* and a *statesman*.

The traitor died *unwept, unhonored, and unsung*.

WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

I passed some time in Poets' Corner, which occupies an end of one of the transepts or cross aisles of the abbey. The monuments are generally simple, for the lives of literary men afford no striking themes for the sculptor. Shakespeare and Addison have statues erected to their memories; but the greater part have busts, medallions, and sometimes mere inscriptions. Notwithstanding the simplicity of these memorials, I have always observed that the visitors to the abbey remained longest about them. A kinder and fonder feeling takes place of that cold curiosity or vague admiration with which they gaze on the splendid monuments of the great and the heroic. They linger about these as about the tombs of friends and companions; for indeed there is something of companionship between the author and the reader. Other men are known to posterity only through the medium of history, which is continually growing faint and obscure; but the intercourse between the author and his fellow-men is ever new, active, and immediate. He has lived for them more than for himself; he has sacrificed surrounding enjoyments, and shut himself up from the delights of social life, that he might the more intimately commune with distant minds and distant ages. Well may the world cherish his renown; for it has been purchased, not by deeds of violence and blood, but by the diligent dispensation of pleasure. Well may posterity be grateful to his memory; for he has left it an inheritance, not of empty names and sounding actions, but whole treasures of wisdom, bright gems of thought, and golden veins of language.

— *Washington Irving.*

Exercise 187.— *Suggestive Questions.* Give some account of the writer, and read the whole selection from "The Sketch Book."

1. Where is Westminster Abbey? What is an *abbey*? A *minster*? 2. Why is it famous? Give all the reasons you can find. Study photographs if you can.
3. Is this narrative or descriptive writing? 4. Why has this part of the abbey special interest for us? 5. Chaucer was the first literary man buried there. When did he die? 6. Are all who have memorials in the abbey buried there? 7. What American author has a memorial there? 8. What is meant by *diligent dispensation of pleasure*? 9. Distinguish between *memories* and *memorials*.
10. Define *monuments*, *medallions*, *transepts*, *aisles*, *medium*, *commune*, *posterity*, *immediate*.
11. Select five words belonging to each part of speech.
12. Mention five transitive verbs with their objects.
13. Five copulative verbs and their complements.
14. Quote an adjective clause.
15. What appositive in the first sentence? 16. What indirect object in the last? 17. Select three complete verbs.
18. Write the bases of the first ten clauses.
19. What series of adjectives do you notice? 20. For what are the semicolons used?

CHAPTER XV.

SENTENCE-ANALYSIS.

Review Exercise 188. — 1. Mention the three classes into which sentences are divided according to meaning. 2. What is a simple sentence? 3. A compound sentence? 4. Into what may every compound sentence be separated? 5. Every simple sentence? 6. Into what may every enlarged subject be separated? 7. Every enlarged predicate? 8. Name the *two* elements that may form the base of a sentence. 9. The *three* elements. 10. What parts of speech may form a complement? 11. What is a modifier?

272. While studying the building up of sentences we have had some practice in *Analysis*, or the taking apart of sentences; for we have pointed out their principal parts, and have shown how each is modified.

273. *Analysis* is the process of separating a sentence into its parts, and of showing what they have to do with one another.

274. Method. — If, in analyzing a sentence, we treat modifying phrases or clauses as single words, the structure of it can be made clear, either orally or in writing, by telling in this order —

1. The **kind** of sentence.
2. The kind of clauses that **form it**.
3. The **base** of the *first* assertion, question, or command.
4. The **subject** and its **modifiers**.
5. The **verb** and its **modifiers**.
6. The **complement** and its **modifiers**.
7. The **base** of the *second*, — **subject, verb, complement**.
8. The **connectives**.
9. The **independent** expressions.

Model for Analysis. "*A fool speaks all his mind, but a wise man reserves something for hereafter.*"

1. This is a **compound assertive** sentence.
2. Formed by uniting **two simple** assertions.
3. The **base** of the first assertion is *fool speaks mind*.
4. The **subject** *fool* is modified by the adjective *a*.
5. The **verb** *speaks* is modified only by its object *mind*.
6. The **object** *mind* is modified by the adjective *all*, and by the possessive *his*.
7. The **base** of the second assertion is *man reserves something*.
8. The **subject** *man* is modified by the adjectives *a* and *wise*.
9. The **verb** *reserves* is modified by the prepositional phrase *for hereafter*.
10. The **object** *something* is unmodified.
11. The **conjunction** *but* unites the two assertions.

275. A *phrase* or *clause* may be analyzed by telling —

- | | |
|------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. Its kind . | 3. Its base . |
| 2. What it modifies . | 4. The modifiers of the base. |

Thus, in the sentence —

De Soto (the discoverer of the Mississippi) was buried [in its waters], —
we may say that *the discoverer of the Mississippi* is —

1. An **appositive** phrase,
2. **Modifying** the noun *De Soto*.

3 and 4. The **base** *discoverer* is modified by the adjective *the* and by the prepositional phrase *of the Mississippi*.

276. A simple form of written analysis is that already given on page 132.

Thus : —

(A) fool speaks (all) <his> mind, | but | (a) (wise) man reserves
+
something [for hereafter].

[[When] hope is lost] all is lost.

277. Secondary Modifiers may be joined to what they modify by lines straight or curved, an arrow-head showing the modified word. Thus : —

[During the distress of-the-American-army], Richard Venable,
 (an army commissioner), took [from James Hook, a Scotchman],
 <two> steers [for the use of-the-troops].

278. When there is reason for the change, *modifiers* of almost every kind may be placed in *inverted order*, or they may be separated from that part of the sentence to which they belong; *e.g.*:

A maiden fair. And I the victor slew. Lean thou this staff upon. Slowly the day declines. For us the sun ne'er sets.

In oral analysis, we must be careful to **transpose** every part of the sentence to its more usual place.

When modified by a phrase, an adjective usually follows its noun. Thus, we say, "a man ready for work," not "a ready for work man."

Exercise 189.—1. Read each of the following sentences, **transpose** into the usual order, and explain what changes you make.

2. Copy and analyze by marking thus:—

[Up the hill] (his) horse he [hotly] urged.

1. Here ends the tale. 2. Many are our faults. 3. A mighty king was he.
4. Of years ago I'm dreaming. 5. The queen hath him offended. 6. Of many men the names he knew.
7. To pastures new press we now eagerly on.
8. Within my garden bloomed a lily tall. 9. Through the dark defile wound the long battalion slowly.
10. Here once the embattled farmers stood.
11. Lightly from bough to bough fluttered the birds in the tree-tops.
12. A vision bright at dead of night I saw.
13. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.

Exercise 190.—1. Read and **transpose** as in Ex. 189.

2. Copy and make a **written analysis**, as in § 254.

1. Somewhere the birds are singing evermore.
2. Pleasantly rose the sun on the village of Grand-Pré.
3. Under the spreading chestnut-tree
The village smithy stands.
4. Down the broad valley, fast and far,
The troubled army fled.
5. There wandered a noble Moslem boy
Through the scene of beauty in breathless joy.
6. Safely through another week
God has brought us on our way.
7. Softly now the light of day
Fades upon my sight away.

Exercise 191.— Analyze the following sentences in full, orally, in writing, or by marking :—

1. What think ye of this ?
2. How use doth breed a habit in a man !
3. Heaven helps those who help themselves.
4. All things come to him who will but wait.
5. Study wisdom, and you will reap pleasure.
6. These are the reasons that have been given.
7. Here rest the great and good in lowly graves.
8. Betwixt eyes and nose a strange contest arose.
9. He is the freeman whom the truth makes free.
10. The human body is a study for one's whole life.
11. Hypocrisy is the tribute that vice pays to virtue.
12. The streams of small pleasures fill the lake of happiness.
13. The fate of empires depends upon the education of youth.
14. Not every disappointment which a man meets is a misfortune.
15. In the market-place of Bruges stands the belfry old and brown.
16. Strong is thy dwelling-place, and thou puttest thy nest in a rock.
17. The phonograph faithfully repeated every word that was spoken.
18. The first and greatest end of education is the discipline of the mind.
19. Work while it is day ; the night cometh in which no man can work.
20. In the course of our reading we should lay up in our minds a store of goodly thoughts in well-wrought words.
21. The robin and the bluebird fill all the blossoming orchards with their glee, and the joyous skylark gives out a flood of song among the clouds.
22. Many persons have no ear for music ; but every one has an ear for skillful reading.
23. The ruby-throated humming-bird—the loveliest one of the whole family—is a native of the Southern States.
24. On the quarter-deck of the flag-ship stood Admiral Sir John Narborough, the first seaman in all England.
25. Laziness grows on people ; it begins in cobwebs, and it ends in iron chains.
26. Among the pitfalls in our way
The best of us walk blindly.
27. Duty points, with outstretched fingers,
Every soul to action high.
28. Oft on the trampling band, from crown
Of some tall cliff, the deer look down.
29. Silently, one by one, in the infinite meadows of heaven,
Blossomed the lovely stars, the forget-me-nots of the angels.

30. Hands of angels, unseen by mortal eyes, shifted the scenery of the heavens ; the glories of night dissolved into the glories of the dawn.
31. O softly on yon bank of haze
Her rosy face the summer lays.
32. They are slaves who fear to speak
For the fallen and the weak.
33. Through all the long midsummer day
The meadow sides are sweet with hay.
34. Lack of occupation is not rest ;
A mind quite vacant is a mind distressed.
35. Still stands the forest primeval ; but under the shade of its branches
Dwells another race, with other customs and language.
36. The master of the district school,
Brisk wielder of the birch and rule,
Held at the fire his favored place.
37. Across the unknown western sea the daring Genoese saw another route
to India.
38. In the most distant hamlet beyond the mountains, in the lonely cabin by
the sea, eyes were turned to this place with anxious longings.
39. The proverb, "Time and tide wait for no man," was written by
Franklin.
40. In the Acadian land, on the shores of the Basin of Minas,
Distant, secluded, still, the little village of Grand Pré
Lay in the fruitful valley.
41. Then came the laborers home from the field, and serenely the sun sank
Down to his rest, and twilight prevailed.
42. Somewhat apart from the village, and nearer the Basin of Minas,
Benedict Bellefontaine, the wealthiest farmer of Grand Pré,
Dwelt on his goodly acres ; and with him, directing his household,
Gentle Evangeline lived, his child, and the pride of the village.
43. Thus, at peace with God and the world, the farmer of Grand Pré
Lived on his sunny farm, and Evangeline governed his household.
44. Thus was the evening passed. Anon the bell from the belfry
Rang out the hour of nine, the village curfew, and straightway
Rose the guests and departed ; and silence reigned in the household.
45. Life had long been astir in the village, and clamorous labor
Knocked with its hundred hands at the golden gates of the morning.
46. Now from the country around, from the farms and neighboring hamlets,
Came in their holiday dresses, the blithe Acadian peasants.
47. Many a glad good-morrow and jocund laugh from the young folk
Made the bright air brighter.

GEN. WARREN'S ADDRESS AT THE BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL.

Stand ! the ground's your own, my braves !
 Will ye give it up to slaves ?
 Will ye look for greener graves ?
 Hope ye mercy still ?
 What's the mercy despots feel ?
 Hear it in that battle peal !
 See it in yon bristling steel !
 Ask it, ye who will !

Fear ye foes who kill for hire ?
 Will ye to your *homes* retire ?
 Look behind you ! — they're afire !
 And, before you, — see
 Who have done it ! From the vale
 On they come ! and will ye quail ?
 Leaden rain and iron hail
 Let their welcome be !

In the God of battles trust !
 Die we may : and die we must :
 But, oh ! where can dust to dust
 Be consigned so well,
 As where heaven its dews shall shed
 On the martyred patriot's bed,
 And the rocks shall raise their head,
 Of his deeds to tell ?

— *John Pierpont.*

Test Questions. — 1. How many assertive, or declarative, sentences in this selection ? 2. How many interrogative sentences ? 3. How many imperative sentences ? 4. What pronoun is omitted from the fifth line of the first stanza ? 5. What adjective clause in the second stanza ? 6. Make a list of the adverbs in the third stanza. 7. Explain the last two lines. 8. What are the modifiers of *come* in the second stanza ? 9. What is the complement of *be* in the same stanza ? 10. What transitive verbs in the last stanza ? 11. How many sentences are used in an exclamative way ? Why ?

PART III.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

CHAPTER XVI.

NOUNS.

Review Exercise 192.—1. What is a noun? 2. If a word stands as subject of a sentence, to what parts of speech may it belong? 3. What if it is the object of a verb or of a preposition? 4. What do you call a word that is modified by an adjective? 5. How do you tell whether a word is a noun or not? 6. What kinds of words or phrases may modify a noun? 7. Use "store" as the subject of a sentence, and give it two or three modifiers. 8. Use "president" as an object, and modify it by a prepositional phrase and an appositive.

A. KINDS.

COMMON AND PROPER.

279. We cannot always use nouns correctly in sentences, without having some regard to the classes into which they are divided according to their *meaning*.

Exercise 193.—1. (a) Does the name "gulf" always stand for the same body of water? (b) To how many parts of a year may the word "month" apply? (c) To how many does the word "April" apply?

2. About each of the following nouns say whether it may represent *any one of several* things, or is meant to be the special name of one individual.

river	Amazon	city	Berlin
mountain	Vesuvius	ocean	Atlantic
continent	Africa	dog	Bruno
orator	Webster	month	August
holiday	Christmas	book	Jo's Boys

2. (a) Which word in each of the following groups applies to the greatest number? (b) Which to the least? (c) Which are names for every one of a certain class? (d) Which are "given names"? (e) Name another individual of each class.

man	ruler	vessel	gentleman
author	sovereign	steamer	scholar
poet	king	battle-ship	teacher
Longfellow	Edward VII.	Oregon	Dr. Arnold

280. Some nouns, such as "man" or "water," represent a thing as *being of a certain kind* or class, without showing which particular one or which part is meant. Other nouns are names given to designate a *particular individual*.

Thus the noun *man* may apply to any one of millions of persons, but the name **Andrew Carnegie** applies to one person only. The name *city* is held in common by hundreds of places, because they are in some respects alike; but **Philadelphia, Chicago, Boston**, are names given to certain cities, to be, as it were, their exclusive *property*.

281. A name held in common by all of a kind is called a **Common noun**; and a special name given to one individual *for its own* is called a **Proper noun**.

"Proper" is derived from a word meaning *one's own*.

282. **Common nouns**, such as *clock, kitchen, tree, glass, putty, oysters, weight, writing, mercy*, have meanings that **describe** things and show what they are **by nature**.

Proper nouns, as we use them, have no longer much meaning in themselves, and like the word *Dick*, which may name a horse, a man, a boy, a dog, or a bird, they serve only to **designate one** person, place, or thing.

We can judge by looking at an object what *common* nouns to apply to it; but if it has a *proper* name, that must be learned in some other way.

Exercise 194.—1. Tell which of these nouns are **common** and which **proper**:

King	Solomon	Temper	Music	Paris
Rome	Eagle	Shasta	Noise	Samuel
Ocean	Peru	Mitchell	Piano	Riches
War	Beauty	Warden	Mozart	Mercy
Christian	Turk	Italian	Democrat	Saint

2. Does the last word in each column show *what sort* of person is meant? If so, these words are common nouns.

283. A Proper Noun is a special name meant for only one person or thing.

All other nouns are *common* nouns.

284. A Common Noun is a general name that applies to any part or to all of a kind or class of objects.

Proper nouns are sometimes used as class names, or common nouns. As—
A Napoleon; The four Georges; A Daniel come to judgment!

Exercise 195.—1. Write the special or proper names of several individuals in each of the following classes:—

River; town; volcano; governor; king; author; country; planet; queen; dog; historian; state; yacht; month; painter; poet; capital; president; book; inventor.

2. What are the people called who live in the following places? Thus:—

“Canada,” Canadians; “Genoa,” Genoese.

Canada; Genoa; Cuba; Spain; Venice; Italy; Europe; Mexico; Brazil; Burmah; China; Japan; Malta; Norway; Boston.

COLLECTIVE NOUNS.

1. What is the difference between a soldier and an army? 2. A ship and a fleet? 3. A singer and a choir? 4. Of what is a jury made up? 5. A flock? 6. A school?

285. Some nouns, even in the singular form, may be plural in meaning, and are called *Collective nouns*, because they denote a collection of individuals.

Exercise 196.—Fill the blanks so as to show of *what* each collection is composed:—

1. A regiment of —. 2. A crew of —. 3. A swarm of —. 4. A herd of —. 5. The Senate contains —. 6. A family of —. 7. A team of —. 8. A pair of —. 9. A club of —. 10. A troop of —. 11. — in the constellation. 12. — on the committee. 13. — in the tribe. 14. — in the pack. 15. — in Congress.

286. A Collective Noun is one that even in the singular form denotes a number of separate persons or things.

Exercise 197.—1. Define each word so as to show that it is a collective noun:—

Group; class; council; hive; multitude; jury; fleet; flock; mob; society; band; drove; couple; bevy; gang; horde; corps; suite.

CONCRETE AND ABSTRACT NOUNS.

287. The names of objects that *take up room* or *have weight*, including all living things and whatever is like a solid, a liquid, or a vapor, are sometimes called *Concrete nouns*.

The names of the qualities, or attributes, or actions of such objects considered *separately* from the objects themselves are called *Abstract nouns*.

“Abstract” means *drawn off, separated*.

288. Nouns of this class apply to *what cannot take up room, or be weighed, or touched, or moved*. Thus:—

Motion, movement, hurry, race, speed, distance, absence.

Beauty, color, freshness, brilliancy, gleam, warmth.

Harmony, music, tune, discord, sound, disturbance, war.

289. Kinds. Of the many kinds of abstract nouns, the most important are—

1. Nouns that name a *quality* or a *condition*; as,—

brightness, poverty, pride, weight, flexibility.

2. Verbal nouns, which name the *action* asserted by a verb; as,—

learning, rejoicing, loving, to swing, to skate.

The division of nouns into abstract and concrete has little grammatical importance.

Exercise 198.—1. Select from this list five words that may be names of actions, ten names of qualities or conditions.

weakness	industry	hoping	speed	fear
despair	temperance	heat	slumber	hunger
singing	haste	reading	dashing	coasting

2. Name four **qualities** or **conditions** of—

wood	gold	an explorer	a good son
air	water	a gymnast	a great man
camels	music	a miser	an agreeable companion

290. An Abstract Noun is the name of a quality, a condition, or an action.

Exercise 199.—There are five nouns of a kind in the following list. Which of them are proper nouns? Which collective? Which abstract?

Maryland; Great Bear; legislature; Eliot; Frenchman; Englishman; skill; humility; audience; slavery; Quito; knowledge; brigade; bevy; suite; Thursday; marching.

B. INFLECTION.

CHANGES IN FORM FOR DIFFERENT USES.

291. Besides using adjectives or other modifiers to show just what a word represents, it is often necessary to *change the form* of the word according to its different uses or applications; *i.e.*, to *inflect* it.

Thus:—*trees, tree's* are inflected forms of the noun *tree*; *sweeter* and *sweetest*, of the adjective *sweet*; *his* and *him* of the pronoun *he*; and *drove, driving, driven, drive, drivest*, of the verb *drive*.

292. Inflection does not change the *meaning* of a word, but rather extends or restricts its application, or adapts it to some particular use in the sentence.

Not all variations in form are inflections. Thus, adding *er* to *quick* to make *quicker* is an inflection. The word is still an adjective. *Quicken*, however, is a derivative rather than an inflected form, for the suffix *en* is added to make the word a verb and thus to change its meaning.

As compared with other languages English has very few inflections. Most of the inflected forms it once had have worn away and disappeared; and now grammatical relations and uses are expressed by the order of the words in a sentence, by other words, or by substitute phrases.

Inflection means a *bending away* from the original form.

293. Most nouns have two forms for *number* and two for *relation*. A few nouns have two forms for *gender*.

Eight pronouns have three forms for *relation*, and a few are inflected for *number*.

Many adjectives and adverbs have three forms for *comparison*.

Verbs have seven or eight inflected forms for various uses. The other parts of speech are uninflected.

294. Inflection is a change in the form of a word to denote a difference in application or use.

NUMBER.

295. The most common change in the form of a noun is that by which we express *Number*.

296. Number is the form of a noun or pronoun that shows whether it denotes one or more than one.

297. The singular number is the form of a noun or pronoun that denotes only one.

298. The plural number is the form of a noun or pronoun that denotes more than one.

299. Most nouns have two number-forms, the *singular* and the *plural*.

300. RULE I. — *Most nouns are made plural by adding s to the singular.* Thus: —

chair	valley	zero	gulf	fife	monarch	German
chairs	valleys	zeros	gulfs	fifes	monarchs	Germans

301. RULE II. — *Letters, figures, signs, etc., are made plural by adding 's.* Thus: —

Do not make your *r's* and *v's* alike. Cancel the *9's*. Make the *+'s* and *-'s* larger.

Exercise 200. — 1. (a) Is the number of syllables always the same in both singular and plural? (b) Which of these words are pronounced with an additional syllable in the plural? (c) Try to discover the reason. (d) What is the additional syllable?

House; place; pane; size; noose; plate; fire; bridge; bride; niche; name; rope; truce; pulse; fence; case; pause; force.

2. Can you tell why in making these plurals we have added *es* instead of *s* alone?

Losses; taxes; topazes; dishes; churches.

302. Some nouns end with a sound so much like that of *s* that we cannot pronounce the plural easily without making another syllable. Hence —

303. RULE III. — *Nouns ending in s, x, z, sh, or ch (soft) form the plural by adding es to the singular.* Thus: —

grass	box	topaz	wish	larch
grasses	boxes	topazes	wishes	larches

Exercise 200 (e). — Write the plural of —

Pass; branch; honey; tyro; clef; safe; fez; bush; patriarch; piano; fife; dwarf; fox; arch; medley; chimney; hoof; i and t.

304. Some nouns require other changes to be made in forming the plural.

Notice those ending in *y*. Which of them end in *y* after a consonant? What is the change in the plural?

fly	key	lily	buoy	story	tray	enemy	ditty
flies	keys	lilies	buoys	stories	trays	enemies	ditties

305. RULE IV. — *If the singular ends in y after a consonant, y becomes ie in the plural.*

Thus: Pony, *ponies*; sty, *sties*; cry, *cries*; body, *bodies*. Also, soliloquy, *soliloquies*; colloquy, *colloquies*.

NOTE. — Words like *lady*, *city*, etc., formerly ended in *ie* in the singular.

306. RULE V. — *Thirteen nouns ending in f, and three in fe, form the plural in ves.* They are —

Beef, calf, elf, half, leaf, loaf, self, sheaf, shelf, staff, thief, wharf, wolf; knife, life, wife. (Plural, *beeves*, *calves*, *elves*; *knives*, etc.)

wharfs is a recognized plural of *wharf*.

All other nouns in *f* or *fe* are regular, adding only *s*.

307. RULE VI. — *About forty nouns ending in o after a consonant form the plural in es.*

The most common ones are—

Buffalo, cargo, calico, echo, embargo, flamingo, hero, mosquito, motto, mulatto, negro, potato, tomato, tornado, torpedo, volcano, veto. (Plural *cargoes, echoes, etc.*)

Most nouns in *o* (several *hundred* in all) are regular, adding only *s*.

308. RULE VII.—*Nine common words always form their plural without s.* They are—

Man, *men*; ox, *oxen*; goose, *geese*; woman, *women*; foot, *feet*; mouse, *mice*; child, *children*; tooth, *teeth*; louse, *lice*.

German, Mussulman, Turcoman, ottoman, talisman, are not compounds of *man*, and form their plural in *s*.

Exercise 201.— Write the plural of each word :—

Jelly; ruby; fairy; glory; duty; victory; turkey; sheaf; chief; strife; money; attorney; cameo; motto; grotto; half; waif; soliloquy; alley; ally; veto; solo; mouse; memento.

309. Proper nouns, when made plural, generally follow the same rules as common nouns. Thus we write :—

All the *Beechers*; the *Adamses*; the *Alleghanies*; several *Mr. Smiths*; both the *Miss Hudsons*; the two *Gen. Johnstons*; one of the *Dr. Davises*; the *Mrs. Wrights*. But—

(a) To prevent confusion, we may make the fewest changes possible in the forms of proper nouns, and may write (for example) *the eight Henrys*, the *Marys*, the two *Miss Carys*, instead of the *Henries*, the *Maries*, the *Caries*.

(b) In referring to members of one family, or to partners in business, we may give the plural form to the title "Mr." or "Miss," instead of to the name itself. Thus we may say—

Mr. Hayes, or the *Messrs. Hayes*; Miss Sands, or the *Misses Sands*.

(c) A title is, of course, made plural when used with several names. Thus :—
Messrs. Long and Collins; *Misses Charlotte, Emily, and Anne Brontë*; *Drs. Brown and White*; *Gens. Lee and Jackson*.

310. Most Compound words form their plural like simple words by changing the *final syllable*. Thus :—

Frenchmen; greenhouses; flag-staffs; handfuls; court-yards; major-generals; four-in-hands; forget-me-nots; jack-in-the-pulpits; three-per-cents; piano-fortes.

(a) A few compounds are made plural by changing the *first part*, which the rest of the word merely describes. Thus:—

Brothers-in-law; *sisters-in-law*; *sons-in-law*; *daughters-in-law*; *fathers-in-law*; *mothers-in-law*; *attorneys-at-law*; *attorneys-general*; *postmasters-general*; *commanders-in-chief*; *generals-in-chief*; *aides-de-camp*; *courts-martial*; *cousins-german*; *hangers-on*; *lookers-on*; *knights-errant*; *men-of-war*; and a few others.

(b) Occasionally *both parts* are changed, as in *man-servant*, *men-servants*.

Exercise 202.— Spell or write the plural of these words:—

Gentleman; grandmother; spoonful; son-in-law; handicraft; maid-servant; court-martial; dining-room; major-general; rope-ladder; eyelash; touch-me-not; go between; stowaway; sailor-boy; out-going; cup-ful; by-path; attorney-general; man-servant; ottoman; Englishman; flower-de-luce; will-'o-the-wisp.

311. Foreign Plurals.— Many words taken without change from other languages retain their foreign plurals. Thus:—

Larva, *larvæ*; vertebra, *vertebræ*; alumnus, *alumni*; focus, *foci*; fungus, *fungi*; radius, *radii*; stratum, *strata*; axis, *axes*; crisis, *crises*; ellipsis, *ellipses*; oasis, *oases*; genus, *genera*; phenomenon, *phenomena*, etc.

312. Some nouns have the *same form for both singular and plural meanings*. We can tell a number of such nouns only by the context. Among them are—

(a) *Deer, sheep, swine, alms, gross*,— always singular in form.

(b) *Amends, means, odds, pains, wages*,— always plural in form.

(c) *Brick, cannon, heathen, head, shot, sail; grouse, salmon*, and many names of fish and of game; *brace, score, hundred*, and other words referring to number, or to quantity. These have also regular plurals with a meaning different from that of the singular. *Alms* is now generally treated as plural in meaning, although singular in origin. *As*,— The alms were received at the alms-gate.

313. (a) Some nouns, from the nature of what is meant, are almost *always singular*. [See p. 154.] As,

Wisdom, music, temperance, honesty, etc.

(b) And some are *always plural*. As, —

Ashes, annals, antipodes, measles, nuptials, scissors, shears, tidings, victuals, vitals, etc.

314. (a) Some nouns are *plural in form* but *singular in meaning*. As, —

News, gallows, and words in -ics, — politics, mathematics, ethics, etc.

(b) And some, *singular in form*, may be *plural in meaning*, As, —

Army, kin, committee, and other collective nouns. Also, cattle.

315. Some nouns used in two senses have *two plural forms*.

brother	. <i>brothers</i> (by parentage)	<i>brethren</i> (by association).
cloth	. . <i>cloths</i> (kinds of cloth)	<i>clothes</i> (garments).
die	. . . <i>dies</i> (for coinage, etc.)	<i>dice</i> (for games).
fish	. . <i>fishes</i> (regarded separately)	<i>fish</i> (collectively).
genius	. <i>geniuses</i> (men of genius)	<i>genii</i> (supernatural beings).
index	. <i>indexes</i> (table of contents)	<i>indices</i> (algebraic signs).
pea	. . . <i>peas</i> (in definite number)	<i>pease</i> (by the quantity).
penny	. <i>pennies</i> (single coins)	<i>pence</i> (as a value or amount).
staff	. . <i>staffs</i> (as a military term)	<i>staves</i> (in most senses).
stamen	. <i>stamens</i> (of flowers)	<i>stamina</i> (support or strength).

GENDER.

316. Among the nouns that name *living beings*, many names show to which *sex* a person belongs; as, —

Edward, Mary, Margaret;

and we sometimes find two nouns with no difference in meaning, except that one of them denotes a *male* and the other a *female*; as, —

prince, princess; son, daughter; John, Jane.

317. Nouns that denote males are said to be masculine, or of the *masculine gender*; those that denote females are said to be feminine, or of the *feminine gender*.

Most nouns that denote living beings apply alike to males or females, and are said to be of *common gender*. For example:— *child, parent, author, thief, stenographer, clerk, etc.*

The names of things without sex are of course of neither gender, that is, of the *neuter gender*. Neuter means *neither*. For example:— *mountain, iron, sky.*

318. The gender of a noun is of little grammatical importance except as it determines the form of a pronoun used to represent it. *He, his, and him* represent *masculine* nouns; *she and her*, feminine nouns; and *it and its*, neuter nouns.

319. When sexless things are given the characteristics of persons they are said to be *personified*, and may be either masculine or feminine. Thus, the *Sun, Time, the Ocean, Anger, War, a river, etc.*, are represented by *he*; while the *Moon, the Earth, Virtue, a ship, Religion, Pity, Peace*, are spoken of as feminine.

320. Gender is distinguished in the following ways:—

1. By Inflection.—The correlative nouns are similar in form, the feminine adding *ess* to the masculine. Thus:—

abbot, abness;	governor, governess;	master, mistress;
actor, actress;	heir, heiress;	negro, negress;
baron, baroness;	host, hostess;	priest, priestess;
count, countess;	Jew, Jewess;	prince, princess;
duke, duchess;	lad, lass [<i>contracted</i>];	prophet, prophetess;
emperor, empress;	lion, lioness,	shepherd, shepherdess;
god, goddess;	marquis, marchioness;	tiger, tigress;

Some words from *foreign languages* retain their inflected forms. Thus:—

administrator, ad- ministratrix;	hero, heroine;	Francis, Frances;
beau, belle;	sultan, sultana;	Henry, Henrietta;
czar, czarina,	testator, testatrix;	Joseph, Josephine;
executor, executrix;	Augustus, Augusta;	Louis, Louisa;
	Charles, Charlotte;	Paul, Paulina;

321. 2. By Different Words.— Sometimes the feminine is a wholly *different word* from the masculine. Thus:—

bachelor, maid ;	lord, lady ;	stag, hind ;
earl, countess ;	monk or friar, nun ;	wizard, witch ;
king, queen ;	sir, madam ;	youth, maiden ;

In *widower, widow*, the masculine is made from the feminine.

322. 3. By Composition.— Sometimes a well-known gender word is made a part of a compound word to show which sex is meant. Thus:—

he-goat, she-bear, man-servant, ewe-lamb, cock-sparrow.

Exercise 203.— 1. Tell the gender of the following nouns, and when possible give the corresponding word of opposite gender.

Cousin ; clerk ; Edward ; duchess ; president ; bridegroom ; printer ; empress ; cashier ; peacock ; child ; cook ; czar ; lass ; widow ; secretary ; sultana ; servant ; nun ; artist ; spinster ; aunt ; goose ; abbot ; maiden ; husband ; roe ; hen ; landlord ; laundress.

2. Give as many general names as you can for **relatives** of both sexes ; as, *uncle, aunt.*

323. Gender is a distinction in words that denotes sex.

CASE AS A FORM.

Exercise 204.— 1. Tell to **what part of speech** “cross” belongs in each sentence, and how you make the distinction.

1. The bridges cross the stream.
2. He gave me a cross look.
3. The emblem of the Christian religion is the cross.

2. (a) In **what six ways** is the noun “Albert” used in these sentences ?

1. Albert has returned.
2. This was Albert's book.
3. Go with Albert.
4. My brother Albert is ill.
5. Have you met Albert ?
6. My name is Albert.
7. We named him Albert.

(b) **How many forms** does the noun have in these sentences ? (c) Which use requires a special form ? (d) How do the forms differ ?

324. Besides having number-forms to show singular or plural meaning, nouns have also what are called *Case-forms*, according to their *use* in a sentence. But there is only one of the various uses for which a special form is required.

325. Nouns have two case-forms or *cases*, — the general or *common form*, for all uses but one ; and the special or *possessive form*, used to show ownership or possession.

326. The *possessive form* of nouns is made by adding to the common form an apostrophe and s ['s], or an apostrophe alone ['], according to the following

RULE. — *To plural nouns ending in s add an apostrophe ; to all other nouns add an apostrophe and s.* Thus :

Day's, days' ; man's, men's ; lady's, ladies' ; Mr. Hay's book ; Mr. Hayes's house ; ostrich's, ostriches'.

NOTE 1. — In words ending with a sound that resembles that of s, the apostrophe with s forms an additional syllable. Thus :—

James's ; Miss Finch's [pron. *James-ĕz, Finch-ĕz*].

NOTE 2. — The only exception to the rule occurs in such expressions as **conscience' sake, goodness' sake, righteousness' sake, Jesus' sake**, where the apostrophe alone is added because another s would make too many hissing sounds.

NOTE 3. — In forming the possessive of compound nouns or of noun phrases, the possessive sign is always placed at the end. [§ 310.] Thus :—

son-in-law's ; sons-in-law's ; his brother John's death ;
Martin Luther's hymn ; William the Conqueror's reign.

Exercise 205. — Write the **four forms** of each of the following nouns. Thus :—

	SING.	PLUR.
<i>Common Form.</i>	child,	children,
<i>Possessive Form.</i>	child's,	children's

Girl ; woman ; wife ; monkey ; mouse ; Miss Long ; lady ; chief ; dwarf ; ox ; swine ; Mr. Adams ; man ; hero ; thief ; brother ; deer ; colony ; baby ; piano ; fox ; son-in-law ; German ; attorney-general.

327. The meaning of the possessive case may often be expressed by the use of the preposition **of** and its object. Thus :—

“**My uncle's death,**” or “**The death of my uncle.**”

Exercise 206. — 1. Write these expressions, using the **possessive case** instead of the prepositional phrase : —

The residence of my sister.	The singing of Miss Vokes.
The wife of my brother.	The stories of Howells.
The manners of a gentleman.	The lectures of Curtis.
A photograph of the baby.	The novels of Dickens.
The sting of a mosquito.	The mother of James.
The store of Mr. Brown.	The letters of Agnes.
The decision of the court-martial.	The army of Xerxes.
The top of the chimney.	The home of Adam.
The retreat of the enemy.	The home of Mr. Adams.

2. Write the expressions in the first column, making every noun *plural*, and then write the equivalent **possessive phrase**.

328. A possessive does not always show ownership. It may denote —

1. *Origin*; as in — “I own **Scott's** novels,” “She uses **Buttrick's** patterns.” Or —

2. *Kind*; as in — “He sells **women's** shoes and **men's** hats,” and “She has a **man's** voice.”

CASE AS A RELATION.

[Optional with Teacher.]

329. In many languages nouns and pronouns have *several case-forms* to denote their different uses, or relations, in a sentence. In English, nouns, long ago, had five case-forms to suit the different uses, but at present nouns have only *two* such forms. Eight pronouns, however, have *three* case-forms.

330. By some grammarians the *case* of a noun or pronoun in English is understood to denote the *relation* in which it stands to other words in the sentence rather than to denote the *form* that marks those relations.

331. When *case* is treated as a *relation* rather than a form, it is customary to say that nouns in English have *three* cases.

These are named *Nominative*, *Possessive*, and *Objective*, from the principal relations that a noun may sustain to other words.

332. The *Nominative* Case is (primarily) the subject of a verb. As, *Victoria* died in 1901.

The *Possessive* Case generally shows possession or ownership. As, *Victoria's* reign ended in 1901.

The *Objective* Case denotes the relation of the object to the verb or preposition. As, The nation honored *Victoria*. The people mourned for *Victoria*.

333. These four are the most common relations or uses of the noun in a sentence. There are, however, eight other relations or uses that nouns may sometimes have in sentences. Nouns used in three of these eight ways are said to be in the **nominative** case because in these relations the nominative *case-form* of pronouns is required. Nouns having four other uses are said to be in the **objective** case because the objective *case-form* of the pronoun is generally required in these relations. A noun in the remaining relation — the appositive — is said to be in the same case as the noun it explains; that is, in any one of the three cases.

334. Case as a relation will perhaps be best understood from the following

SUMMARY.

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| A Noun
is in the
Nominative
Case when
used | } | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. as the subject of a verb. As, — The <i>hour</i> has come. 2. as the subjective complement of a verb. As, — This is the <i>hour</i>. 3. independently by address or exclamation. As, — O fatal <i>hour</i>! 4. absolutely with a participle. As, — The <i>hour</i> having come — 5. in apposition with another word in the nominative case. As, — Noon, the <i>hour</i> of twelve, has come. |
| A Noun
is in the
Possessive
Case when
used | } | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. to denote ownership or possession. As, — An <i>hour's</i> pleasure. 2. in apposition with another noun in the possessive case. As, — His brother <i>John's</i> wife — |

A Noun
is in the
Objective
Case when
used

1. as the **object** of a verb. As, — Waste not an *hour*.
2. as the **indirect object** of a verb. As, — He gave the *hour* no thought.
3. as the **object** of a preposition. As, — Come at an early *hour*.
4. **adverbially** to modify a verb, adjective, or adverb. As, — He waited an *hour*.
5. as the **objective complement** of a verb. As, — Call midnight the *hour*.
6. as the **subject of an infinitive**. As, — Hear the *hour* strike.
7. in **apposition** with another word in the objective case. As, — Spend sixty minutes, a full *hour*.

To the Teacher. — It has seemed to the author more consistent with the present condition of the English tongue, and less confusing to the learner, to treat case as a *form*, since the relation is nearly always marked in other ways, — by position in the sentence, or by the use of prepositions. Moreover, to say that a noun is in the nominative or objective case is only to say that it has one of five, or one of seven, uses in the sentence. Just what the special use is, must be told in other language.

However, case is presented both as a form and as a relation that teachers may use the method they prefer.

C. THE USES OF NOUNS.

Exercise 207. — Analyze these sentences, and tell the way in which the noun "diamond" is used in each: —

1. *Diamonds* are found in Africa and India.
2. Brazil exports *diamonds*.
3. The most precious jewel is the *diamond*.
4. Shall we call the jewel a *diamond*?
5. The countess wore a necklace of *diamonds*.
6. This priceless gem, the Kohinoor *diamond*, originally weighed eight hundred carats.
7. The *diamond's* luster is unsurpassed.

335. There are *twelve* different uses which nouns may have in the expression of thought. Seven of these uses we already know about.

A Noun may be used in a sentence as —

1. The **Subject of a verb**:

The wind *sways* the tops of the trees.

Can woodpeckers *make* such large holes ?

2. The **Subjective Complement of a copulative verb** (or of a passive verb-phrase) [§ 539] :

These trees *are* ancient landmarks.

The Emperor of Russia *is styled* the Czar.

3. The **Object of a transitive verb** (or verbal word) [§ 539] :

We *bend* the branches *to reach* the fruit.

4. The **Object of a Preposition** :

The shadow *of* the tree reaches *beyond* the wall.

5. The **Objective Complement of a transitive verb** :

They *made* Theodore Roosevelt **Vice-President**.

6. An **Appositive** to explain another noun or pronoun :

Homer, the famous Greek **poet**, was blind.

She mourned *him*, her only **son**.

7. A **Possessive** :

The **Indian's** wigwam gave place to the **settler's** cabin.

This is the only use that requires a special *form* of the noun.

NOTE. — Instead of speaking of the *uses* of nouns or other words in sentences, we sometimes speak of their *construction* or *syntax*. All these expressions are identical in meaning, and have to do with the relations of words to one another, or the way they are put together or arranged in sentences.

Rules for the Use of Possessives.

336. Sometimes the names of several persons are treated like a single noun in forming the possessive.

Thus, if **Parker and Ward** is the name of a business firm, we treat it like a compound noun, putting the possessive sign at the end when we speak of **Parker and Ward's business** or **mills**. To say **Parker's and Ward's business** or **mills** would show that the men were in business separately, or owned different mills.

Exercise 208. — In the following expressions do we mean **joint owners** of the *same* thing, or **separate owners** of *different* things ?

1. Hall and Whipple's hotel.
2. Elizabeth and Mary's reign.
3. William and Mary's reign.
4. Rice and Besant's novels.
5. Bulwer's and Thackeray's novels.
6. Jackson's and Grant's administrations.
7. Taylor and Fillmore's administration.
8. Do you prefer Tennyson's or Whittier's poetry ?
9. Who were Cain and Abel's parents ?

337. RULE I. — (a) *To show separate possession of different things by several persons, use the possessive sign after the name of each. But —*

(b) *To show joint possession, use the sign after the last name only.*

Exercise 209. — 1. Change these expressions so as to show **joint possession** : —

1. Gilbert's and Sullivan's operas. 2. Woodward's and Brown's pianos.
3. Warner's and Twain's *Gilded Age*. 4. Grant's and Sherman's friendship.
5. Spain's and Portugal's alliance. 6. Beaumont's and Fletcher's dramas.
7. Hay's and Nicolay's *Life of Lincoln*.

2. Change these so as to show **separate possession** : —

1. Webster and Worcester's Unabridged Dictionary. 2. Steinway and Chickering's pianos.
3. Green and Macaulay's *History of England*. 4. Webster and Worcester's dictionaries.
5. Do you prefer Greenleaf or Wentworth's arithmetics ?
6. Bancroft, Prescott, and Motley's *History*. 7. Lowell and Holmes's poems.

3. Give two different phrases each implying that Noyes and Weeks own the *same* mine. How would you show that they own *different* mines ?

338. To express the idea of possession it is often better to use a *prepositional phrase* than to use the possessive sign. In this way we may avoid awkward forms or the unpleasant repetition of hissing sounds. Thus : —

“ In the reign of Napoleon the Third ” is better than
 “ In Napoleon the Third's reign ” ; and

“The houses of my father’s partner ” sounds better than
 “ My father’s partner’s houses.” So, instead of
 “Socrates’s sayings ” we say —
 “The sayings of Socrates.” Hence —

339. RULE II. — *Avoid harsh or awkward expressions by using a prepositional phrase instead of a possessive.*

Exercise 210. — Improve the following sentences according to Rule II. : —

1. What is the first governor of Rhode Island’s name ?
2. Did you hear the senator from New York’s speech ?
3. The conductor of the freight train’s excuse was insufficient.
4. Remember my wife’s sister’s invitation.
5. What is your college chum’s father’s business ?
6. Harper’s Magazine’s circulation is immense.
7. Where are the architect of the post-office’s designs ?
8. The Adamases’ administration covered eight years.
9. This is Dr. Smith’s the eminent surgeon’s opinion.

Exercise 211. — Point out the errors in the use of the possessive, and give the rule violated.

1. Barnes’ History ; men’s clothing ; a boy’s kite.
2. Lady’s maids. Childrens’ playthings. Everybodies’ business.
3. Where is Smith’s and Jones’s store ?
4. This is the administrator of the estate’s office.
5. The January *St. Nicholas*’s illustrations are admirable.
6. Scott and Abbott’s estimate of Napoleon differ greatly.
7. Do you prefer Smith or Kitto’s Bible Dictionary ?
8. What do you think of the captain of the Dauntless’s skill ?
9. Which is larger, the *Independence* or the *Shamrock*’s jib ?
10. This is Dr. Hill, the professor of rhetoric’s opinion.

340. A possessive noun does the work of a phrase or of an *adjective*, and, like an adjective, may be used without the noun it modifies, as in “ This poem is Longfellow’s.” [See 391].

8. NOUNS AS INDIRECT OBJECT.

341. A noun may be used as the *Indirect Object* of a verb. Thus : —

We have *sent* the superintendent an invitation.

Exercise 212.—1. Mention the object of each verb, and tell *to whom* or *for whom* something was done.

1. They gave a whip to the driver. 2. He paid a hundred dollars to physicians. 3. I bought a horse for my brother. 4. Who painted the picture for your friend? 5. I asked questions of the teacher. 6. We made a call on the Czar. 7. They gave the driver a whip. 8. She built the king a castle. 9. We offered the lady a glass of water. 10. Did you lend Henry this book? 11. I have written my mother a long letter.

2. Read the last four sentences with the **object next to the verb.**

3. Change the first six so as to have the **object at the end.**

342. Verbs like those in the preceding exercise often have two objects, —

(1) One showing *what* is given, bought, etc., called the *Direct Object*, because it shows what the action directly affects; and —

(2) The other shows *to whom* or *for whom* something is given, bought, etc. This is called the *Indirect Object*, because it is less closely connected with the verb.

343. When the direct object comes first, the indirect object is expressed in a prepositional phrase, introduced generally by *to* or *for*, sometimes by *of* or *on*, as in sentences 1-6, Exercise 212.

344. The *Indirect Object* of a verb is the noun or pronoun that shows *to* or *for* what person or thing the action is performed.

Exercise 213.—1. Read the following sentences, **omitting** the indirect object.

2. Mention the **direct** and the **indirect** objects.

1. He sent my sister some fine mosaics from Florence. 2. The king granted the offender a full pardon. 3. He showed his audience some rare views. 4. This land yields its owner large crops. 5. This merchant allows his customers large discounts. 6. Throw the man a rope! 7. The government granted the Pacific railroad large tracts of land. 8. He forgave the man that debt. 9. Can you teach an old dog new tricks? 10. The judge showed the culprit no mercy. 11. Do you tell me the truth? 12. Can you bring us proofs? 12. We paid the men four dollars.

3. Read the sentences, substituting a **prepositional phrase** for the indirect object.

4. Analyze the preceding sentences, treating the indirect object as a *modifier of the verb*. Thus :—

(The) king granted [the offender] (a) (full) pardon.

345. When a transitive verb with an indirect object is changed into a passive verb-phrase, either the direct or the indirect object may be made the subject. Thus :—

They gave [me] a cordial invitation, may be changed to

A cordial invitation was given [me], — i. e., [to me], or

I was given (a) (cordial) invitation.

In the latter case the direct object is retained as the object of the passive verb. It is often called the *retained* object. [See Passive Verb Phrases.]

Exercise 213 (5). — Use the following verbs in sentences containing direct and indirect objects :—

pay ; find ; sell ; give ; toss ; make ; return ; deliver ; write ; lend.

9. NOUNS USED ADVERBIALLY.

Exercise 214. — 1. What kind of **phrases** may be used like adverbs ?

2. What words or phrases modify the following verbs as **adverbs** would ? Tell whether they show *how much*, *how often*, *when*, and so on.

- | | |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Have you been standing long ? | 6. He came very recently. |
| 2. We have been waiting for hours. | 7. They went away in the night. |
| 3. You might have slept a few minutes. | 8. We met them last year. |
| 4. His burden weighs heavily. | 9. She arrived last Sunday. |
| 5. The load weighs several tons. | 10. We buy a newspaper every day. |
| 11. Did you fall far ? No ; I fell a few feet, then slid several rods, and rolled the rest of the way. | |
| 12. The steamer sailed due east three hundred miles the first day. | |

346. We see from the preceding sentences that not only adverbial and prepositional phrases, but also *nouns* and *noun-phrases*, may be used like *adverbs*. They may modify —

Verbs :	{	We shall remain a week .
	{	He has traveled a thousand miles .
	{	He was beaten several times .
Adjectives :	{	This is a pound heavier .
	{	It is worth ninety cents .
	{	My ladder is ten feet long .
Adverbs :	{	You might write a great deal better .
	{	We shall walk a mile farther .
	{	A minute later all was lost.
	{	Where shall we be a hundred years hence ?

347. Nouns used adverbially may denote time, place, or manner, — showing when, where, or how; but they generally denote *measure*, showing *how much*, *how far*, etc.

Exercise 215.—1. Select the nouns used adverbially; tell what they modify, and whether they denote **measure**, **time**, **place**, or **manner**.

1. The sun sets fifty minutes later. 2. The moon rises an hour earlier. 3. They perished ages ago. 4. What is that coming this way? 5. A few years ago men were a month traveling a thousand miles. 6. Cowards die many times before their deaths. 7. A piece two inches wide and four feet long weighs three pounds and is worth one dollar. 8. He has crossed the ocean twenty times a year. 9. I walked the floor all night long. 10. Emperor William was forty-two years old last Tuesday.

2. **Analyze** the preceding sentences orally or in writing.

10. NOUNS USED INDEPENDENTLY.

348. A Noun may be used *Independently* in a sentence, —

1. *In calling to or addressing* some person or thing; as, —

Bring us some lilies, **Mary**.

Gentlemen, have you agreed upon a verdict?

We say of such nouns that they are used “independently *in address*.” They are therefore sometimes called *vocatives*.

2. *In calling attention* to something not addressed; as, —

The **wind**, the **wind**! hear how it roars!

Alas! poor **creature**! how she must have suffered!

We say of such nouns that they are used “independently in exclamation.”

(a) A noun used in either of these ways stands by itself as a separate part of the sentence, and should be set off from the rest of it by commas or an exclamation point.

Exercise 216.— Select the nouns that are used independently, and tell whether they are used in address or in exclamation.

1. “Drink, pretty creature, drink.” 2. Give me of your balm, O fir tree!
3. “What a fall was there, my countrymen.” 4. “Soldiers, here you must either conquer or die.” 5. “Our country! it is not the East with its broad-armed ports.” 6. “Roll on, thou deep and dark blue ocean, roll!” 7. Mr. President, my object is peace. 8. The Pilgrim fathers! where are they?
9. The flag of the free! O long may it wave! 10. “Permit me, sir, to add another circumstance.” 11. “Youth!” he said, “I forgive thee.”

12. “My country! ’tis of thee,
Sweet land of liberty,
Of thee I sing.”

11. NOUNS USED WITH PARTICIPLES.

349. A Noun may be used *with a participle* that modifies it [§ 604] to make an adverbial phrase showing the *time* or *cause* of what is predicated. Thus:—

Our commander being slain, we retreated. [Showing what *caused* the retreat.]

My suspicions having been aroused, I began to watch him. [Showing *why* or *when* I watched him.]

350. A noun used in this way is sometimes said to be used “absolutely.” The entire phrase is used as a substitute for an adverbial clause [§ 611], and really modifies the verb of the accompanying assertion. The examples given above mean—

We retreated *because our commander was slain*.

I began to watch him *since my suspicions were aroused*

Exercise 217.— Tell how each verb is modified, and explain the use of the italicized nouns.

1. His *supplies* having been exhausted, the general capitulated. 2. We returned home, our *work* being finished. 3. The *jury* having been sworn, the trial proceeded. 4. The *river* being impassable, no attempt was made to cross it. 5. His *trials* (being) ended, he rests in peace.

12. NOUNS AS SUBJECT OF THE INFINITIVE.

351. A noun may be used as the subject of an infinitive.

Thus:—

We know the **earth** to be round.
I believe **him** to be a dishonest man.

The noun here stands in the relation of object to the leading verb as well as that of subject of the infinitive. A personal pronoun thus used requires the objective case-form. Thus:—

Make **him** hear.

[See Infinitives].

PARSING.

352. We analyze a sentence by separating it into its *elements*,— words, phrases, or clauses,— and showing how each one is connected with some other; if we then analyze each phrase and clause, we show how *every word* is used.

But we need to be perfectly familiar with the *forms* and *classes* of words as well as with their use. To do this we must examine each word by itself, and following some system in telling what is *grammatically important* about it. This is called *paring* the word.

353. To parse a word is to tell what is of grammatical importance about it.

354. We should *analyze* a sentence before we parse the words in it, for the forms and classification of words depend upon their *use*, and this we discover through our analysis.

355. We should parse the words of a sentence in the following order: —

- I. **The Base** (subject, verb, complement).
- II. **The Modifiers of the Base.**
- III. **The Secondary Modifiers, etc.**
- IV. **The Connective Words.**

356. In parsing a word we should tell —

1. The *part of speech* to which it belongs.
2. In what subdivision of that part of speech it is found; that is, *what kind* of noun, verb, adjective, etc., it is.
3. Its grammatical *form*, — number, case, tense, etc.
4. Its *use* or *construction*, or what it has to do with some other word.

357. *How to Parse a Noun.* The following form may be used in parsing nouns: —

Alexander II gave [the Russian serfs] (their) freedom [not many years ago].

Alexander II is a *noun*, because it is a name; *proper*, because it is a special name meant for one person only; *singular*, because it denotes but one; *used* as the subject of the verb **gave**, for it represents the person about whom the assertion is made.

freedom is a noun; *abstract*, for it names [a quality or] a condition; *singular*; used as the *object* of the verb **gave**, for it shows *what* was given.

serfs is a *common* noun, because it is a name for any or all of a certain kind; *plural*, because it denotes more than one; used as the *indirect object* of **gave**, for it shows *to whom* freedom was given.

years is a *common* noun; *plural*; used *adverbially* to modify **ago**; it shows *how long* ago the event happened.

358. The following *brief* form is generally better: —

Alexander II is a singular proper noun; subject of the verb **gave**.

freedom is a singular abstract noun; object of the verb **gave**.

serfs is a plural common noun; indirect object of the verb **gave**.

years is a plural common noun; used adverbially to modify **ago**.

Exercise 218.—Analyze the following sentences, and parse* the nouns:—

1. Accent and emphasis are the pith of reading; punctuation is but secondary.
2. The maize-field grew and ripened, and it stood in all the splendor of its garments green and yellow.
3. We may cover a multitude of sins with the white robe of charity.
4. I was born an American; I live an American; I shall die an American.
5. How cunningly Nature hides every wrinkle of her inconceivable antiquity under roses and violets and morning dew.
6. Frequent the company of your betters.
7. Congenial autumn comes, the Sabbath of the year.
8. It is the tint of autumn, a mighty flower-garland, blossoming under the spell of the enchanter Frost.
9. Five times outlawed had he been
By England's king and Scotland's queen.
10. One morn a peri at the gate of Eden stood disconsolate.
11. The oratorio of Elijah was first performed in 1836 at Dusseldorf.
12. Habit is a cable; every day we weave a thread.
13. "In a valley centuries ago,
Grew a little fern-leaf, green and tender."
14. The longest syllable in English is the word strength.
15. The examiner asked the candidate few questions.
16. The army being disbanded, Washington proceeded to Annapolis.
17. "Beautiful for situation, the joy of the whole earth, is Mount Zion, the city of the great King."
18. "Her voice was ever soft,
Gentle and low, an excellent thing in woman."
19. "And so make life, death, and that vast forever
One grand sweet song."
20. "Farewell, thou ever changing moon,
Pale empress of the night."
21. "Peace! Independence! Truth! Go forth
Earth's compass round;
And your high priesthood shall make earth
All hallowed ground."

* *To the Teacher.*—While children are learning to parse, they should give all the facts they can about a word, with the reasons. As they progress, they may substitute briefer forms, and give only the more important facts. Time should not be wasted in vain repetitions.

22. Now came still evening on, and twilight gray
Had in her sober livery all things clad.
23. Hail Egypt ! land of ancient pomp and pride,
Where Beauty walks by hoary Ruin's side ;
Where plenty reigns, and still the seasons smile,
And rolls — rich gift of God ! — exhaustless Nile.

NOUNS : SUMMARY.

359. About *Nouns* we have learned to distinguish the following: —

1. **Kinds:** { Common
Proper
Collective } Concrete.
 { Abstract
2. **Forms:** { Number: { Singular.
 { Plural.
 { Masculine.
 { Feminine.
 { Neuter.
 { (Common) or { Nominative.
 { Possessive { Possessive.
 { Objective.

3. **Uses or Constructions.**

1. **Subject** of the verb —.
2. **Subjective complement** of the verb —.
3. **Object** of the *verb* —.
4. **Object** of the *preposition* —.
5. An **Appositive** explaining the noun (or pronoun) —.
6. **Possessive form** modifying the noun —.
7. **Indirect object** of the verb —.
8. Used **adverbially** to modify the { verb —.
 { adjective —.
 { adverb —. }
9. Used **independently** in address (or exclamation).
10. Used **with the participle** — to make an adverbial modifier of the verb —.
11. **Objective complement** of the verb —, referring to the object —.
12. **Subject** of the infinitive —.

360.

CONCORD HYMN.

Sung at the Completion of the Battle Monument, April 19, 1836.

By the rude bridge that arched the flood,
 Their flag to April's breeze unfurled,
 Here once the embattled farmers stood,
 And fired the shot heard round the world.

The foe long since in silence slept ;
 Alike the conqueror silent sleeps ;
 And Time the ruined bridge has swept
 Down the dark stream which seaward creeps.

On this green bank, by this soft stream,
 We set to-day a votive stone ;
 That memory may their deed redeem,
 When, like our sires, our sons are gone.

Spirit, that made those heroes dare
 To die, and leave their children free,
 Bid Time and Nature gently spare
 The shaft we raise to them and Thee.

— R. W. Emerson.

To the Teacher. — Read in the class Emerson's short address at the unveiling of the "Minute Man," by Daniel French, April 19, 1875. It will make the poem clearer and add greatly to the interest. It may be found in Emerson's addresses, or G. W. Cooke's *Life of Emerson*, p. 182.

Exercise 219. Suggestive Questions.— 1. What event is here commemorated? 2. One line of the poem is very often quoted; which is it? 3. Did you notice any similar expression in the address? 4. What does this line mean? 5. What is the name of the *dark stream* that seaward creeps? 6. Does *creeps* quite harmonize with the *flood* of the first line? What does *flood* mean here? 7. Would this poem have been suitable to the second occasion? Give all your reasons. 8. After reading the address, do you find the first stanza accurate? 9. What is the meaning of *embattled*, *votive*, *redeemed*, *shaft*? 10. Why use semicolons in second stanza instead of periods or commas? Explain the meaning of the last stanza.

11. Point out the nouns in the selection and classify them. 12. Account for the use of capitals. 13. What examples of personification do you find? 14. Six of the twelve uses of the noun are here illustrated. Which are they? 15. Parse the nouns.

CHAPTER XVII.

PRONOUNS.

361. We know that a noun, as "piano", is a name full of meaning, representing a distinct idea. A pronoun, as "that," is nearly meaningless, but it may denote *any person or thing* without being a name for it.

Although the pronouns are few in number, they are divided into several classes, and the most of them have much to do besides merely taking the place of nouns. [See § 149.]

A. KINDS.

1. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Exercise 220.—1. Which of the following pronouns refer to the person speaking?

2. Which refer to the person spoken to?

3. Which to the person or thing spoken of?

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Did <i>you</i> bring <i>me</i> a letter? | 8. <i>She</i> knows <i>their</i> plans. |
| 2. <i>Your</i> father sent <i>it</i> to <i>my</i> care. | 9. Tell <i>her</i> what <i>ours</i> are. |
| 3. <i>I</i> asked <i>him</i> for <i>his</i> address. | 10. <i>Hers</i> depend on <i>theirs</i> . |
| 4. <i>He</i> wanted <i>yours</i> and <i>mine</i> . | 11. Know <i>ye</i> <i>its</i> meaning? |
| 5. Does <i>your</i> sister know <i>them</i> ? | 12. <i>He</i> telleth <i>thee</i> that <i>thou</i> mayst |
| 6. <i>We</i> must inform <i>our</i> friends. | keep for <i>thy</i> share only what |
| 7. <i>They</i> will forget <i>us</i> . | is <i>thine</i> own. |

4. If only one person is speaking, to whom must the pronoun *we*, *our*, *ours*, and *us* refer?

5. Do any of the preceding pronouns show *what kind* of person is meant, — as a noun would?

362. Pronouns that of themselves show whether we mean the person speaking, the person spoken to, or some person or thing spoken of, are called *Personal* pronouns.

363. (1) Pronouns of the *first person* always represent the *speaker*, either alone or with others.

They are **I** and its variations — *my, me; we, our, us*.

(2) Pronouns of the *second person* always stand for the *person or persons spoken to*.

They are **thou** and its variations, — *thy, thee; ye, you, your, etc.*

(3) Pronouns of the *third person* generally refer to *what has been spoken of*.

They are **he, she, it**, and their variations, — *his, him; her; its; they, their, them, etc.* Any pronoun not referring to the speaker or to the person addressed is of the third person in *meaning*.

364. A **Personal pronoun** is one that denotes the speaker, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of.

365. *Myself, thyself, yourself, himself, herself, itself*, and their plurals, are called **Compound personal** pronouns. They have two uses. In the sentence, — He caught all the fish *himself*, — *himself* emphasizes or intensifies the meaning of the pronoun *he*. This is said to be the **emphatic** use.

In the sentence — He has injured *himself* — *himself* is the direct object of the transitive verb, *injured*, and refers back as it were to the subject, *he*. This is said to be the **reflexive** use.

2. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

Exercise 221. — 1. Of what kind are the following sentences? 2. For what does **who** stand? **which**? **what**? 3. To what part of speech do these words belong? 4. For what purpose are they used? 5. What kind of sentence is made by putting the answers in place of the pronouns?

1. **Who** discovered the Mississippi? — De Soto. By **whom** was the St. Lawrence discovered? — Cartier. **Whose** discovery was made first — Cartier's.

2. **Which** is the longer of the two rivers? — The Mississippi.

3. **What** is the meaning of "Mississippi"? — "Father of Waters."

366. An Interrogative pronoun is one used to ask a question.

The three interrogative pronouns are **who**, **which**, and **what**. The last two are sometimes used as adjectives. [§ 431.]

367. The word for which an interrogative pronoun stands is unknown until it appears in the answer to the question.

3. CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.

I. Clauses as Modifiers.— Adjective Clauses.

Review p. 135.

Exercise 222.—1. What is a clause? 2. A dependent clause? 3. An adjective clause? 4. In the sentence, "Trustworthy boys are boys that may be trusted," what two expressions are alike in meaning? 5. What is the use of each? 6. What is the antecedent of *that*?

368. We have learned that a noun may be modified not only by an *adjective word*, but also by an *adjective clause* or group of words that contains a subject and a predicate.

Thus in the sentence, —

Regions that have no vegetation are called deserts,

the expression **that have no vegetation** is used like an *adjective* to show which regions are meant, — as if we had said "regions *without vegetation*" or "*barren* regions."

369. In the sentence "Read books *which make you better*," it is evident that the word *which* has a double use. As a pronoun representing the noun *book* it is the subject of the verb *make*, and at the same time it connects the dependent clause in which it stands to the word *book* in the principal clause. Pronouns that connect clauses as well as take the place of nouns are called *conjunctive* pronouns.

370. A *Conjunctive pronoun* is one that introduces a dependent clause and generally connects it to the rest of the sentence.

371. We shall find in our study of noun clauses that the antecedent of a conjunctive pronoun is often omitted or understood. When it is expressed the pronoun is called a *relative* pronoun.

- **372.** A Relative pronoun is a conjunctive pronoun whose antecedent is expressed.

Exercise 223.—1. Select the adjective clauses, and tell what each one modifies or describes.

2. Point out the relative pronoun and its antecedent in each clause.

1. I have read the book **which** you lent me. 2. The story **that** it tells is interesting. 3. The author, **who** is a woman, lives in Texas. 4. Help those **that** are weak. 5. Invite the gentleman **of whom** you spoke. 6. He gave all **that** he had. 7. Those **that** are rich should help those **that** are poor. 8. A man **who** cannot govern himself is a slave. 9. Our journey, **which** was very tiresome, ended at last. 10. The friends **whom** we visited have come. 11. Remember those **whose** hearts are sad. 12. Read such books **as** will be helpful.

373. The four relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *that*, and *as*.

Who (*whose*, *whom*) represents *persons* only; *which* represents *anything but persons*; and *that* and *as* represent either *persons* or *things*.

- **374.** The antecedent of a relative pronoun is generally a noun or another pronoun. It may, however, be a clause. As, "I said nothing, **which** made him angry." Here the antecedent of *which* is "I said nothing."

(a) Since **which** and **that** have no possessive form, **whose** is frequently used to represent something besides persons. It is generally better, however, to use *of which* instead.

(b) When **as** is a relative pronoun, it follows *as many*, *such*, or *same*; as in, "I give thee **as** I have"; "**As** many as wish may go"; "Mine is the same **as** yours (is)."

(c) The relative when used as the object of a verb is often omitted in the adjective clause. It may easily be supplied. As,—This is the man I saw yesterday. The watch he repaired loses time.

Exercise 224.—1. Which of the relative pronouns would you use to represent each of the following words:—

Book; city; cousin; horse; flowers; soldiers; rivers; kings; tea; winter; Bismarck; tribes; armies; conquerors.

2. Write sentences containing the preceding words **modified by adjective clauses**.

II. Clauses as Part of the Base: Noun Clauses.

Exercise 225.—

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. { <i>Poor people</i> may need help. | 3. { I saw <i>the things which he gave</i> . |
| { The poor may need help. | { I saw what he gave . |
| 2. { Cloth is <i>the stuff that he sells</i> . | 4. { <i>That which you tell</i> is true. |
| { Cloth is what he sells . | { What you tell is true. |

1. Read the expressions that are alike in meaning, but different in form.
 2. Compare the subjects in the first pair of sentences, and show how the second subject is made from the first. 3. Find the adjective clauses, and tell what each modifies. 4. Do the antecedents *stuff, things, that*, add much to the meaning? Give your reason. 5. Read the sentences in which there are no antecedents. 6. Why is not an antecedent expressed? 7. What pronoun is used in the clause when the antecedent is omitted?

375. We know that an *adjective* may be used without its noun when the meaning is perfectly clear; as in, "The **ignorant** should be taught."

From the preceding exercise we learn that an *adjective clause* may also be used without the modified word, when the meaning of that word would be indefinite. Used alone in this way it becomes a *Noun clause*. Thus in—

I saw { *that or*
 { *the thing* } which he brought,

the word *that* or *thing* has of itself so little meaning that we may as well omit it; for it will convey the whole idea to say—

I saw **what he brought**.

So, too, the sentence "Employ **whoever applies**," is equivalent to "Employ **anyone who applies**."

376. In noun clauses we generally use *what, whoever, whichever*, etc., for the connecting or *conjunctive* pronouns. But we do not call them "relative," for they only *imply* another pronoun or a noun which is really the omitted antecedent.* They are generally called *indefinite conjunctive* pronouns.

* "What" formerly followed an antecedent; as in, "He gave me that what I have."

377. An *indefinite conjunctive pronoun* is one whose antecedent is not expressed.

378. Noun clauses may be subjects, objects, or subjective complements, etc., like the antecedents which they replace.

Exercise 226.—1. In these sentences **explain the use** of the italicized words and clauses :—

1. I saw his *gifts*. I saw *what he gave*. 2. Milk was her only *sustenance*. Milk was *what sustained her*. 3. I hear your *remarks*. I hear *what you say*. 4. You tell the *truth*. You tell *what is true*. 5. Your *work* is excellent. *What you do* is excellent. 6. *Idlers* will fail. *Whoever is idle* will fail. 7. He will sell all his *possessions*. He will sell *whatever he owns*. 8. Take your *choice*. Take *whichever you choose*. 9. He will fulfill his *promise*. He will do *whatever he promises*. 10. Think about your *lessons*. Think about *what you study*. 11. *Whoever confesses* will be forgiven. 12. *Whatsoever you ask* shall be done. 13. *Whosoever will* may come. 14. *Who steals my purse* steals trash.

2. Read each sentence with the **noun clause changed** to a noun or a pronoun modified by an adjective clause.

379. A noun clause is a clause having the use of a noun.

380. (a) The indefinite conjunctive pronouns *what*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*, *who*, *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, and *whichever* are used in noun clauses.

(b) The interrogative pronouns are also used in noun clauses as connectives when a question is repeated indirectly as part of the reply to it. Thus : " Who wrote the book ? " — I do not know " **who** wrote the book." " **Who** did it," is a secret. Ask again " **which** he took." I will not tell " **what** it is."

Exercise 227.—1. **Classify the clauses** in these sentences, and tell how each is used :—

1. He remembers *what he learns*.
2. Have you ascertained *who wrote the letter* ?
3. Man can do *what man has done*.
4. The fur *which warms a monarch* warmed a bear.
5. Reputation is *what we seem*, but character is *what we are*.
6. Beauty is the mark that God sets on virtue.
7. We shall never know who wrote the book.
8. Whoever trusts him makes a mistake.
9. Whatever he does shall prosper.
10. The man who feels truly noble will become so.

2. Point out the **conjunctive pronouns**, and tell which are relative and which indefinite. Which two are interrogative ?

4. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. <i>All</i> men are mortal. | 1. <i>All</i> have faded. |
| 2. <i>Both</i> stories are false. | 2. <i>Both</i> were wrecked. |
| 3. <i>Each</i> hour is precious. | 3. <i>Each</i> shall be rewarded. |
| 4. <i>Many</i> books are worthless. | 4. <i>Many</i> were orphans. |
| 5. <i>Much</i> time is wasted. | 5. <i>Much</i> remains to be used. |
| 6. <i>One</i> man's meat is another man's
poison. | 6. <i>One</i> was taken, and <i>another</i> was
left. |
| 7. <i>That</i> clock is too slow. | 7. <i>That</i> was more expensive. |

Exercise 228. — 1. Compare the italicized words in the two columns ; tell which are adjectives, and give your reason. 2. Do they describe, or only limit ? 3. What does each one limit ? 4. What noun may each of the italicized words in the second column have been used to represent ?

381. In the last exercise we see words that are sometimes used as *adjectives* to limit the application of a noun, and sometimes as *pronouns* to replace that noun. Thus, in the sentence, —

One can do only **one** thing at a time,

the second *one* is a limiting *adjective* modifying "thing"; but the first *one*, having no noun expressed, is an adjective used as a pronoun; that is, it is an *adjective pronoun*.

Exercise 229. — Select the **adjective pronouns**, and tell for what each one is used.

1. Few shall part where many meet. 2. All that breathe will share thy destiny. 3. None are so deaf as those who will not hear. 4. This was the bravest warrior that ever buckled sword. 5. She had no fortune, and I had none; but that of my father was ample. 6. Some are happy, whereas others are miserable. 7. One ought to rely on one's self. 8. Such as I have, give I unto thee. 9. Both went to the war, but neither returned. 10. Both of these are good, and I will take either. 11. An hour or so had passed.

382. The principal words used as adjective pronouns are : —

All, another, any, both, each, either, few, former, latter, many, more, most, much, neither, none, one, other, own, same, several, some, such, this, that, these, those.

383. *Each, either, and neither* are called **distributives**, because they refer to a number of objects taken separately.

This, that, these, and those are called **demonstratives** when they point out objects definitely. *He, she, they, etc.*, have a similar use in such sentences as "He that would thrive must rise at five."

Which and what are **interrogatives**. As in, — *Which* road did he take? *What* book have you? They may also be **conjunctive**. As in, — Do you know *which* road he took or *what* friends he left?

Each other, one another, are **reciprocal pronouns**.

384. An adjective pronoun is a limiting adjective used without its noun.

Exercise 230. — Tell the class to which each pronoun belongs, and give your reason. Thus: —

"I" is a *personal* pronoun, for it always represents the speaker. "What" is a *conjunctive* pronoun, for it connects a clause to the rest of the sentence.

1. It is I. 2. We are frail. 3. You and he are strong. 4. Few are stronger. 5. Who knocks? 6. To whom shall they go? 7. Is this the house which he built? 8. Which are they? 9. Did you call us? 10. That on the hill is his. 11. Which is yours? 12. Thou art she whom he calls. 13. Bring what he wants. 14. What is his name? 15. I cannot tell what his name is. 16. I that speak unto you am he. 17. Many are called, but few are chosen. 18. I have none to go with me. 19. We respect those that respect themselves. 20. We often deceive ourselves while trying to deceive others. 21. God helps those that help themselves.

B. INFLECTION : CHANGES OF FORM.

1. NUMBER.

385. Fourteen pronouns have, like nouns, *two number-forms*. They are:—

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| (1) The five personal pronouns : | { | SING. <i>I; thou; he, she, it.</i> |
| | { | PLURAL <i>we; ye, you; they.</i> |
| (2) The five compound personal pronouns : | | |
| SING. | | <i>myself; thyself; yourself; himself, herself, itself.</i> |
| | | } _____ } |
| | | PLURAL <i>ourselves; yourselves; themselves.</i> |
| (2) Four adjective pronouns : | { | SING. <i>this; that; one; other.</i> |
| | { | PLURAL <i>these; those; ones; others.</i> |

386. All other pronouns have but *one form*, which is used either with a singular or with a plural meaning.

(a) *Another, each, either, neither*, are **always singular** in meaning; and *both, few, many, several*, are **always plural** in meaning.

Exercise 231. — 1. Tell whether these pronouns have a **singular** or a **plural** meaning :—

This; we; you; few; she; them; who; myself; both; us; they; each; these; such; which; he; that; many; ourselves; either; whoever; themselves; several; all; those; who; it; any; some; another; neither.

2. Give the **other number form** of such of these words as have two forms.

2. CASE.

Exercise 232. — 1. I left **my** trunk behind **me**.

2. **Thou** art the Creator, and **thy** works praise **thee**.

3. **He** sent **his** army on before **him**.

4. **They** obey **their** parents, and honor **them**.

1. Whom do the pronouns in the first sentence represent? 2. Give the use of each one. 3. How does the form change with the use? 4. In No. 2 mention the pronoun used as subject; as possessive; as object. 5. Do they represent the same person? 6. Why do they differ in form? 7. In Nos. 3 and 4 how are the forms of the pronouns changed? 8. How do you account for these changes?

387. We see from the preceding exercise that besides a possessive form some pronouns have still another special form, which is required whenever they are used as *objects*.

Thus, besides *who*, we have the possessive form *whose*, and the object, or *objective* form *whom*, which is used when the pronoun is the object of a verb or of a preposition; as in,—

Whom did you mention? For whom is it?

388. Eight pronouns,—

I, thou, he, she, it, who, whoever, whoseever,—

have three case-forms or cases :—

- (1) The **possessive**, to show ownership;
- (2) The **objective**, required when the pronoun is used as an object; and—
- (3) The **subjective** or **nominative** form for all other uses.

“Nominative” means merely naming.

389. Cases are the different forms of nouns and pronouns required by their relation to other words in a sentence.

Case is sometimes treated as the *relation* itself rather than the *form* that shows the relation. [See Case as a Relation, § 329.]

390. The **Nominative** case is the form of a pronoun required for use as a subject or a subjective complement.

The **Possessive** case is the form of a noun or pronoun required to show possession.

The **Objective** case is the form of a pronoun required for use as the object of a verb or a preposition.

391. To give all the singular and plural case-forms of a pronoun is to *decline* it. Thus:—

		NOMINATIVE.	POSSESSIVE.	OBJECTIVE.
FIRST PERSON . .	{ Singular.	I	my, [mine]	me
	{ Plural.	we	our, [ours]	us
SECOND PERSON . .	{ Singular.	(thou)	(thy), [thine]	(thee)
	{ Plural.	(ye) you	(your), [yours]	you
THIRD PERSON . .	{ Sing. Masc.	he	his	him
	{ Sing. Fem.	she	her, [hers]	her
	{ Sing. Neut.	it	its	it
	{ Plural.	they	their, [theirs]	them
		NOMINATIVE.	POSSESSIVE.	OBJECTIVE.
Singular or Plural in meaning.	{	who	whose	whom
	{	whoever	whosoever	whomever
	{	whosoever	whosoever	whomsoever

(a) *Thou, thee*, etc., are now used chiefly in solemn address, or in poetry. The plural *you* commonly takes the place of *thou*, and may denote *one* person only.

Exercise 233.—1. Name the case of these pronouns. Which are plural forms?

Her; him; thine; them; who; ours; its; I; their; ye; whose; thee; whom; us; hers; thy; our; you; me; my; it.

2. Learn the ten **nominative** forms ; the nine **objective** forms. Which two forms are either nominative or objective ? Which one is either possessive or objective ?

392. Three pronouns — *one, other, another* — like nouns, have a special form only for the possessive use. Thus : —

Singular: one, **one's** ; other, **others** ; another, **another's**.

Plural: ones, **ones'** ; others, **others'** ;

393. Most pronouns, however, are not used as possessives, and have but a single form for all their constructions.

Either's and *neither's* are sometimes used ; but the phrases *of either, of neither*, would be better.

3. GENDER.

394. *He, she, and it* denote sex. *He* represents a male, and is of the masculine gender ; *she* represents a female, and is of the feminine gender ; *it* generally represents sexless things, and hence is said to be of the neuter gender.

(a) **He** is often used to represent an antecedent that applies to both males and females. As in, —

Has any *person* lost **his** gloves ?

(b) In sentences like "The child cries for **its** mother," "Shoot the crow if you see **it**," we use **it**, because the sex is either unknown or unimportant.

395. **Personification**. We sometimes speak of things *as if* they were persons, and use masculine or feminine pronouns in referring to them. Such objects are said to be **personified**. Thus : "The sun **his** ceaseless course doth run." "Nature in **her** robes of green."

C. USES, OR CONSTRUCTION.

396. Pronouns have all the *constructions*, or uses in sentences, that nouns have. Three or four of these uses, however, are rare ; and relative and interrogative pronouns are mostly used in one of the first four ways. [See page 167.]

397. An Interrogative pronoun generally precedes the verb, and there is sometimes a doubt whether it is used as subject or as subjective complement. We can always decide, however, by noticing the construction of the word that takes its place in the expected reply. For example :—

Who is it? It is your mother.
Which is mine? The small one is yours.
What was he? He was a clergyman.

Here **who** and **what** must be *subjective complements*, for so are **mother** and **clergyman**, the words they represent. For a similar reason, **which** is a *subject*.

Exercise 234.— Tell the use of each pronoun in these sentences :—

1. He liveth long who liveth well. 2. Who is it?— It is I. 3. We have found them. What is it that you have found? 4. In what did you travel? We sent to him by her for this. 5. Whose carelessness caused this? Our defeat was their victory. One's manners show one's breeding. 6. He himself hath said it. They each and all declined to go. 7. He gave one of them permission, and she told us the secret. 8. Each stepping where his comrade stood the instant *that* he fell. [§ 347.] What is it worth? 9. "O Thou who hearest prayer!" "O happy we! thus blessed." 10. This being the case, we shall not go. 11. The will makes the house yours. You may as well call it such. [§ 225.]

398. Most personal pronouns have two possessive forms,— one used like an adjective to modify a following noun, as in "*my hand*," "*your heart*,"—and the other used to take the place of a noun, as in "*mine is here*," "*this is yours*." These second forms are sometimes called *possessive pronouns*.

(a) **His** is used in either way; as "*his land*," "*his was a useful life*."

(b) **Mine** and **thine** are sometimes used like *my* and *thy* before a word beginning with a vowel sound; as "*mine own*," "*thine honor*."

399. The second of the possessive forms may be used in any construction, and with singular or plural meaning. Thus :—

That tongue of **hers** will make trouble.

Thine is the glory. Bring **theirs**, but leave **ours**.

“Wealth is not **his** that has it, but **his** that enjoys it.”

Do not use the apostrophe in writing *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*.

400. It is frequently used as the temporary or anticipative subject of a verb, the real subject of which is a word or an expression that comes after it [§ 579]. As in, —

It is always best (to try). It is true (that health makes wealth).

401. It, they, and one are sometimes used indefinitely without an antecedent. As in, —

It rains. It will freeze to-night. Who is it? It is I. It is the king. It is the queen.

They say that honesty is the best policy.

One should take care of **one's** health.

ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

402. Sentences containing conjunctive pronouns are always complex.

403. A Complex Compound sentence is a compound sentence that contains one or more dependent clauses.

404. In analyzing complex sentences the directions given on pages 145, 146, may generally be followed.

In marking the analysis *adjective clauses* (and *adverb clauses*) may be inclosed like other modifiers, and the use of *noun clauses* may be shown by underlining them entire. The base of a clause may be marked by lines drawn *over* subject, verb, and complement. The word that introduces the clause may be marked with a + *over* it.

Examples. — **1.** (The) past is (a) (shadowy) page ⁺ (which keeps [forever] (the) record (of our lives).

1. This is a **complex assertive** sentence.
2. Formed of the **principal clause** and an **adjective clause**.
3. The **base** of the principal clause is *past is page*.
4. The **subject** *past* is modified by the adjective *the*.

5. The **subjective complement** *page* is modified by the adjectives *a*, and *shadowy*, and by the adjective clause *which keeps forever the record of our lives*.

6. The **base** of the adjective clause is *which keeps record*, and so on.

2. Nothing is troublesome ⁺ (that we do [willingly]).

NOTE. — Conjunctive pronouns used as complements always *precede* their verbs, as in the sentence above.

3. Whoever does ⁺ (a) (good) deed is [instantly] ennobled.

1. This is a **complex assertive** sentence.

2. Formed of a **principal clause** having a **noun clause** for its subject.

3. The **base** of the assertion is — and so on as before.

4. (The) lecturer told [us] ⁺ what he had seen [during his journey].

Exercise 235 (a). — **Analyze** the following sentences: —

1. Who owned the farm that was sold? 2. Tell me what you have learned.
3. The gentleman who called is a physician. 4. He is a man that I esteem highly. 5. Show me those that you have finished. 6. We shall send him whatever he demands. 7. Do you know for whom the gift is meant? 8. Have you heard what caused the fire? 9. I know what you want. 10. Ask her who he is. 11. We prize that which we obtain by effort. 12. This is the book from which he read the story. 13. My lord, I know not what the matter is. 14. People almost never do anything in anger of which they do not repent. 15. He who was taught only by himself had a fool for a master. 16. Nature is loved by what is best in us. 17. There is no secret of the heart which our actions do not disclose. 18. Reputation is what we seem, but character is what we are. 19. Beauty is the mark that God sets on virtue. 20. What man has done man can do. 21. Such as I have give I unto thee.
22. That which was sown an earthly seed
Shall rise a heavenly flower.
23. What's hallowed ground? 'Tis what gives birth
To sacred thoughts in souls of worth.
24. The block of granite which was an obstacle in the pathway of the weak,
becomes a stepping-stone in the pathway of the strong.
25. It is thinking that makes what we read ours.
26. Who gives himself with his alms feeds three,
Himself, his hungry neighbor, and me.
27. Each, after all, learns only what he can;
Who grasps the moment as it flies,
He is the real man.

405. How to Parse a Pronoun. — A pronoun is parsed by giving its 1. *kind*; 2. *antecedent*; (3. *person*;) (4. *number*;) (5. *case*;) 6. *use*; and (7. *declension*).

The following forms may be used: —

(My) mind (to me) (a) kingdom is.

My is a *personal* pronoun; represents the speaker; first *person*; singular *number*; possessive *case*; used to modify the noun **mind**.

Or more briefly, —

My is the first singular possessive personal pronoun, and is used to modify **mind**.

Those ⁺(that waste (their) youth) lose ⁺what they can [never] regain.

Those is an *adjective* pronoun; represents “those persons”; plural *number*; used as subject of the verb **lose**.

That is a *relative* pronoun; *antecedent*, **those**; used as the subject of the verb **waste**.

What is a *conjunctive* pronoun; antecedent omitted; used as the object of the verb **can regain**.

Exercise 235 (b). — Parse the *pronouns* in Exercises 235 (a) and 230.

406.

SUMMARY: PRONOUNS.

1. **Kinds.**

Personal: { *Simple.*
Compound: (a) emphatic, (b) reflexive.
Possessive.

Interrogative.

Conjunctive: { *Relative.*
Indefinite.

Adjective: { *Distributive.*
Demonstrative.
Interrogative.
Conjunctive.

Reciprocal.

2. **Forms:**

{ *Person:* First, Second, Third.
Number: Singular, Plural.
Gender: Masculine, Feminine, Neuter.
Case: Nominative, Possessive, Objective.

3. **Construction.**

See “Summary of Nouns,” page 177

DIRECTIONS FOR THE USE OF PRONOUNS.

1. WRONG NUMBER FORMS.

- Exercise 236.** — 1. A tree is known by — fruit.
 2. Deciduous trees shed — leaves annually.
 3. Neither of the ships lowered — colors.
 4. Let each person do — best.
 5. Even a child is known by — doings.
 6. Both the regiments laid down — arms.
 7. Each pupil must provide — own books.
 8. No faithful girl will forget — duties.

1. What is meant by the antecedent of a pronoun? 2. In the first two sentences, would you fill the blanks with "their" or "its"? 3. Give your reason, and explain the number of both pronoun and antecedent. 4. In the third sentence, does the subject "neither" mean one or more than one? 5. Will "their" correctly represent it? Give your reason. 6. In the next two sentences, why may we not use "their" to represent *person* and *child*? 7. Fill the blanks in the remaining sentences with "their," "her," "its," or "his," as you may think best. 8. When is the singular form of a pronoun to be used? 9. The plural? 10. The feminine?

407. We must be careful always to use a singular pronoun to represent a singular antecedent, and a plural pronoun to represent a plural antecedent.

It is incorrect to say, —

Every man of you must polish *their* own armor,

for the plural pronoun "*their*" does not correctly represent the singular antecedent "man." We should say, —

Every man of you must polish *his* own armor.

408. Agreement. — *A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in number, gender, and person.*

Exercise 237. — Fill the blanks with suitable pronouns, giving the reason for your choice. Thus: —

"Neither had discovered *his* mistake." The singular antecedent "neither" must be represented by the singular pronoun *his*. A pronoun must agree in number with its antecedent.

1. Neither had discovered — mistake. 2. Each contributed what — could. 3. Every one stoutly maintained — innocence. 4. The beaver shows great skill in constructing — dwellings. 5. Everybody must look out for —. 6. A person should control — wrath. 7. When one is ill, — will call a physician. 8. If you find *Little Women*, send — to me. 9. This is such bad news that I cannot believe —. 10. England expects every man to do — duty. 11. Each workman must provide — own tools.

12. Sharpen my shears so that — will cut. 13. Which of the two finished — work first? 14. Let each esteem others better than —. 15. A person may make — happy without wealth. 16. Let each of the girls take — place. 17. A person's manners frequently show — morals. 18. After you have read *My Girls*, return — to me. 19. If thine enemy hunger, feed —. 20. If anybody knows, — must not tell. 21. Many a man will sacrifice — reputation for a trifle. 22. If anybody calls, tell — to wait.

409. Antecedents joined by AND. — *Singular antecedents connected by "and" must be represented by a plural pronoun when they denote different things, but by a singular pronoun when*

(1) *they denote the same thing, or*

(2) *when they are kept separate by the use of "each," "every," "many a," or "no."* Thus: —

Martha and Mary (two persons) wept for **their** brother.

The secretary and treasurer (one person) has resigned **his** office.

Each leaf and each flower can speak **its** Maker's praise.

Every maple and every elm will have shed **its** leaves.

Many a flower and many a gem may have **its** beauty hidden.

No friend and no acquaintance gave me **his** aid.

Exercise 238. — Supply a suitable pronoun in each of these sentences, giving the reason for your choice: —

1. Joseph and Benjamin rejoiced to see — father. 2. Cultivate good temper and kind feeling: — presence will make all about you happy. 3. Envy and hatred make — possessor unhappy. 4. Poverty and wealth have each — own temptations. 5. Each officer and each soldier will be permitted to retain — arms. 6. My classmate and companion had completed — studies. 7. Every steamer and every train had — complement of passengers. 8. Every lady and every gentleman must register — names. [See § 411.] 9. The husband and father cannot support — family. 10. Every city and village and farm furnished — quota of soldiers.

410. Antecedents joined by OR or NOR. — Use a singular pronoun to represent singular antecedents connected by “or” or “nor.” Thus: —

Either the president or cashier must add **his** signature.

Neither Harrison, Taylor, nor Garfield completed **his** term of office.

411. In referring to singular nouns of different gender we must use pronouns of different gender, or else change the form of the sentence. Thus, we may say —

Every boy or girl may keep **his** or **her** books, or
All the boys and girls may keep **their** books.

It is wrong, of course, to say,

“Every boy or girl may keep **their** books.”

If there were a singular pronoun that could refer to either males or females, we might not be tempted so often to use “they” incorrectly.

Exercise 239. — Read these sentences, supplying a suitable pronoun, and giving a reason for your choice, according to § 410. Thus: —

“Neither Henry nor Thomas had paid **his** fare.”

The singular pronoun *his* must be used to represent the singular nouns “Henry” and “Thomas” which are connected by “nor,” and hence are to be taken separately.

1. Neither the lawyer nor the physician will give — services. 2. If thy hand or thy foot offend thee, cut — off. 3. Where can I buy a good horse or farm, if I want — ? 4. Neither Alfred nor Ellen recited — lesson perfectly. 5. No man nor woman ever hurt — health in this way.

412. Collective nouns while singular in form are either singular or plural in *meaning*, and hence are represented sometimes by a singular and sometimes by a plural pronoun. When we say,

The *committee* has made *its* report,

we speak of the action of one body. In

The jury *were* divided in *their* opinion,

we are thinking of the action of the *individuals* that form the body.

The name of our country, the United States, though plural in form, is now more generally treated as a singular collective noun. We speak of *its* government, *its* army, *its* navy. Usage, however, is divided.

413. Collective Antecedents. — *Represent a collective noun by a singular pronoun when you refer to the collection as a whole, and by a plural pronoun when you refer to the individuals of the collection separately.*

Exercise 240. — Fill each blank with a suitable pronoun, giving the reason for your choice.

1. The audience kept — seats till the close.
2. The jury had not brought in — verdict.
3. The House will elect — speaker next Monday.
4. The Board of Aldermen will be divided in — opinion.
5. Our club will hold — meeting to-morrow.
6. The Post will install — officers next week.

2. WRONG CASE-FORMS.

414. When we use the pronouns that have three case-forms, we must be careful to use only the *nominative* forms as *subjects* and *subjective complements*, and only the *objective* forms as *objects* of verbs or prepositions.

415. The *nominative forms* for subjects and subjective complements are, —

I, we, thou, he, she, they, who, whoever, whosoever.

The *objective forms* for objects of any kind are, —

me, us, thee, him, her, them, whom, whomever, whomsomever.

416. Rule for Subjects, etc. — 1. *Never use an objective case-form as a subject or as a subjective complement; or —*

2. *“The subject of a verb should be in the nominative case.”*

Exercise 241. — Select the proper form of the pronoun, giving the reason for your choice. Thus :—

“It wasn't (me, I) that did it.” The nominative *I*, and not the objective *me*, should be used as the subjective complement of *was* according to the rule, “Never use an objective case-form as a subject or a subjective complement.” We should say, “It wasn't *I* that did it.”

1. You and (me, I) will go together. 2. Why shouldn't (us, we) girls form a club? 3. Thy father says (thou, thee) must obey. 4. I should go if I were (he, him). 5. You said it was (her, she) that called. 6. (Them, they) that have want more. 7. I do not know (who, whom) it will be. 8. Reward (whomever, whoever) is deserving. 9. (Whom, who) do you think it is? 10. It is not (us, we) who are to blame.

11. Was it (she, her) that came last? 12. Few can entertain an audience better than (him, he). 13. I do not think it could have been (they, them). 14. She knows better than you or (me, I). 15. (They, them) that do well should be rewarded. 16. How much older are you than (her, she)? 17. Where are you and (he, him) to stay? 18. Who will ask for it, you or (I, me)?

417. Rule for Objects. — 1. *Never use the nominative of a pronoun with three case-forms as the object of a verb or a preposition; or —*

2. *“The object of a verb or preposition should be in the objective case.”*

Exercise 242. — Choose the proper form of the pronoun, and justify your selection. Thus :—

“He has invited you and (I, me).” The use of the nominative *I* instead of the objective *me* as the object of the verb *has invited* would be a violation of the rule, “Never use the nominative of a pronoun with three case-forms as the object of a verb”; hence we should say, “He has invited you and *me*.”

1. Let this be a secret between you and (I, me). 2. (Who, whom) did they choose? 3. I want you and (he, him) to go. 4. Nothing is too good for you nor (she, her) either. 5. (Who, whom) did you see? 6. Tell me (whom, who) you mean. 7. There was no one to go except (she, her) and her mother. 8. I wanted you and (him, he) to come again. 9. (Whom, who) is this package for? 10. (Them, they) that honor me I will honor. 11. Send (whoever whomever) you choose. 12. I will give it to (whosoever, whomsoever) you select. 13. (Who, whom) did he appoint as executor? 14. This is for you and (I, me). 15. Let's you and (I, me) bring the sleigh.

418. *An appositive pronoun requires the objective case-form only when in apposition with an object.* Thus :—

Honor thy *mother*, *her* who loves thee well.
We will write to each other, *you* and *I*.

419. *A pronoun used independently or with a participle should generally have the nominative case-form.* Thus :—

“O *Thou* who hearest prayer !” “*He* failing, who shall succeed ?”

420. *The subject and the complement of the indirect predicate to be must both have the objective case-form.* Thus :—

I knew it to be *him*. He thought *them* to be *us*. *Whom* did he suppose *me* to be ?

Exercise 243.—Read each of these sentences several times, using different pronouns to fill the blanks, when possible. Thus :—

It is *I*. It is *you*. It is *we*. It is *he*. It is *she*. It is *they*.

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. It is —. It wasn't —. | 9. It can't be —. It must be —. |
| 2. Is it —? No, it is —. | 10. Was it —? No, it was —. |
| 3. It is not — nor —. | 11. They saw — and —. |
| 4. — and — will go. | 12. Between — and —. |
| 5. Neither — nor — went. | 13. Do you know — he sent? |
| 6. Those are for — and —. | 14. He knows — it is for. |
| 7. He mistook — for —. | 15. — knew it was —. |
| 8. Do you know — it is? | 16. — knew it to be —. |

Exercise 244.—Read the sentences, using that form of the pronoun which you think is correct. Give the reason for your choice.

1. Was it you or (I, me) that made the mistake? 2. It was intended for either you or (him, he). 3. (Who, whom) did he send with you? 4. Was it (him, he) (that, who, whom) you met at my uncle's? 5. Be careful (who, whom) you admit to your friendship. 6. No matter (who, whom) the poor fellow is, help him. 7. All (which, that) I have told you is between you and (I, me). 8. (Who, whom) shall we send in his place? 9. The committee did not agree in (its, their) opinion. 10. We saw the procession with (their, its) banner.

11. There are few better men than (he, him). 12. Each of them must answer for (themselves, himself). 13. (Whom, who) besides him do you think was rewarded? 14. Nobody should praise (themselves, himself). 15. Can you forgive (we, us) girls for our folly? 16. Every man and boy took off (their, his) hat. 17. Please explain the phenomena: I do not understand (it,

them). 18. That distinguished orator and statesman will give (their, his) lecture to-night. 19. Neither the king nor the queen wore (his, her, their, the) royal robes.

3. CHOICE OF PRONOUNS.

421. *Of the relative pronouns, "who" stands for persons only, "which" for other things, and "that" for either persons or things.*

422. *That, rather than who or which, should be used, —*

(1) After a *superlative adjective*. Thus : —

The *wisest* man **that** ever lived.

(2) After *same, all, and the interrogative who*. Thus : —

The *same* friend **that** I visited. *All that* was left. *Who that* heard the orator can forget him ?

(3) After antecedents denoting both *persons and things*. Thus : —

He spoke of the *men and the cities that* he had seen.

Why not "*whom* he had seen" or "*which* he had seen" ?

423. It is often better to use **that**, rather than "who" or "which," in **restrictive** clauses ; that is, in clauses that limit the application of the antecedent by showing *which ones* or *how many*, etc., are meant.

Other adjective clauses state an additional fact about the antecedent, and may be called **explanatory** or **appositive** clauses. For example : —

RESTRICTIVE. Franklin was the commissioner *that negotiated the treaty*.

APPOSITIVE. Congress appointed a commissioner, *who negotiated the treaty*.

424. It is better to use **each other** in speaking of two objects ; **one another**, of more than two. As in, —

David and Jonathan loved (each) other.

How do the months compare [with (one) another] ?

Each and **one** are generally in apposition with the subject of the verb ; **other** and **another** are objects.

Exercise 245. — 1. Fill the blanks with *who, which, or that*, and give the reason for your choice.

1. He was deceived by the friend in — he trusted. 2. A new party arose, — opposed the National Bank. 3. These are the same persons — assisted us before. 4. Who are those — were introduced to us? 5. All — I said did not influence him. 6. They have not forgotten the friends and the home — they have left. 7. Is that the regiment of — you are a member? 8. He was the first — reached the New World. 9. The surgeon, — was a very skillful man, saved my friend's life. 10. The family — I visited cannot be the one to — you refer. 11. We saw the prisoners and the flags — were captured.

2. Point out the errors in the following sentences : —

1. The tribes of Southern Africa resemble each other. 2. Either of the five will help you. 3. The two nations are suspicious of one another. 4. We saw a ship that its masts were cut away.

425.

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. Name four classes of pronouns. 2. Name those that are always of the same "person." 3. What two uses have conjunctive pronouns? 4. What is a clause? 5. An adjective clause? 6. A noun clause? 7. Of what kind are pronouns that introduce adjective clauses? 8. What is a complex sentence? 9. Which pronouns have two number-forms? 10. Name the eight pronouns that have three case-forms. 11. Give the nine objective case-forms. 12. Use *who* in five different constructions. 13. Mention three rare uses of the personal pronouns. 14. What determines the number-form of a pronoun? 15. In what constructions must the nominative case-form be used? 16. The objective? 17. When must a singular pronoun represent a collective noun? 18. What is the rule for the number of a pronoun that represents two singular nouns? 19. Parse the pronouns in the following selection. 20. Quote the two adjective clauses and tell what each modifies. 21. How is the noun clause used? 22. What clause modifies *buy* like an adverb? 23. What phrases may you substitute for *above* and *below*? 24. How may "moments" be brought up?

He liveth long who liveth well ;
 All else is life but flung away ;
 He liveth longest who can tell
 Of true things truly done each day.
 Then fill each hour with what will last ;
 Buy up the moments as they go ;
 The life above, when this is past,
 Is the ripe fruit of life below.

LINCOLN'S GETTYSBURG ADDRESS.

November 15, 1863.

Fourscore and seven years ago our fathers brought forth upon this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battle-field of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field as a final resting-place for those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this. But in a larger sense we cannot dedicate, we cannot consecrate, we cannot hallow this ground.

The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it far above our power to add or detract. The world will little note, nor long remember, what we say here; but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us, the living, rather to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced.

It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us, that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion; that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain; that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom, and that government of the people, by the people, and for the people, shall not perish from the earth.

- Exercise 246. — Suggestions.**
1. Try to picture in your mind the time and place and the state of the country.
 2. What led to the establishment of a National Cemetery at Gettysburg?
 3. What is the ordinary expression for *four score and seven*?
 4. Substitute it and see which you like better. Why?
 5. Where else have you seen, "All men are created equal"?
 6. To what event is Lincoln looking back?
 7. Define *proposition*, *testing*, *dedicate*, *detract*, *advanced*.
 8. What contrasting words in the second paragraph?
 9. This address is considered a masterpiece of English and is known all over the world. Why not commit it to memory?
 10. Select the personal pronouns in this selection, and give the use of each.
 11. Mention the conjunctive pronouns, classify the clauses, and tell how they are used.
 12. Which of the conjunctive pronouns are relatives?
 13. How is *it* in the fifth sentence used?
 14. Analyze the sixth sentence.
 15. Make a list of the adjective pronouns.

CHAPTER XVIII.

ADJECTIVES.

[Review pages 98-103.]

Exercise 247.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Any bright, intelligent child. | 7. Several large Asiatic lions. |
| 2. Some poor anthracite coal. | 8. What plants are poisonous? |
| 3. Which planet is brightest? | 9. Those three decaying trees. |
| 4. Chasms; dark and dreadful. | 10. Every tenth man was lame. |
| 5. Six tall Russian soldiers. | 11. All the written evidence. |
| 6. That road looks cheerless. | 12. This water tastes salt. |

1. What is an adjective? 2. Which of the preceding adjectives *describe* what is mentioned? 3. Which show *how many* are meant? 4. Mention those that merely show *which ones* are referred to without describing them. 5. What is a predicate adjective? 6. Mention those used above. 7. Name the adjectives used to ask questions. 8. The two derived from proper nouns. 9. Those that are made from verbs. 10. Those that show quantity. 11. Which besides the predicate adjectives follow the nouns that they modify?

A. KINDS.

426. Most adjectives are words that may be used with a noun *to describe* the object named by showing that it is of a certain kind or quality, or that it is in a certain state or condition. As, —

white roses; **skillful** surgeons; **wounded** men; **daily** walks.

Such adjectives often *limit* the application of a noun to those of a certain kind, as in the last three examples.

427. Other adjectives do nothing else but *determine* or *limit* the application of a noun by showing *which ones, how many, or what quantity*. As, —

this brook ; the fourth day ; six perch ; few trout ; much rain.

428. A Descriptive adjective is one that describes what is mentioned.

429. Descriptive adjectives derived from proper nouns are called **proper** adjectives. Those that are forms of verbs are called **participial** adjectives. Those that denote qualities are called **qualitative** adjectives. Thus : —

Brazilian diamonds ; fatiguing journeys ; wise men.

Exercise 248. — From the following nouns form proper adjectives to fill the blanks in the sentences : —

Genoa, France, America, Spain, Persia, Venice, Italy, China, Japan, Turkey, Greece, Mexico, Africa, Shakespeare, Malta, Brazil.

1. — navigators sailed under the — flag. 2. The — flag and the — flag have three colors each. 3. — carpets and — rugs are imported.
4. — lanterns and — fans are sold here. 5. The windows have — blinds. 6. He is an excellent — reader. 7. Which are more valuable, — or — diamonds ? 8. He played several — airs. 9. Draw a — cross and a — cross. 10. We met two —, a —, and several —.
11. Cochineal is a — product.

430. A Limiting adjective is one that merely shows which ones, how many, and so on, without describing.

431. Limiting adjectives include the following : —

I. The two Articles, — **the** ; **an**, or **a**.

(a) **The** is the *definite* article, used with either singular or plural nouns to point out some particular thing or things.

(b) **An** or **a** is the *indefinite* article, used with singular nouns to show that we mean either *one* only or *any* one.

II. **Numeral** adjectives, — showing *how many* or *which one* of a series, *how large a part*, etc. As, —

March contains **thirty-one** days, or four weeks and **three** days. Pro-nounce the **third** word on the **ninety-first** page. A **tenth** part is smaller than a **sixth** part.

III. The **Interrogative** adjectives, — **which** and **what**. **As**, —

Which road leads to Rome? **What** cities were destroyed?

IV. The **Conjunctive** adjectives, — **which** and **what**, with their compounds, used to introduce a noun-clause, or to connect it to the rest of the sentence. **As**, —

Do you know **what** presidents died in office?

Whatever facts you may obtain will be valuable.

We have **not** heard **which** army was victorious.

Some conjunctive adjectives are relatives, and some interrogatives.

V. **Demonstrative** adjectives, — *this, that, these, those, and yonder*, which point out objects definitely.

VI. **Distributive** adjectives, — *each, every, either, neither, and many a*, which refer to objects singly.

VII. **Quantitative** adjectives, — *much, more, most, little, less, least*.

Distributive and **quantitative** adjectives are called **Indefinite** adjectives.

The **interrogative, conjunctive, demonstrative, and indefinite** (except *every*) adjectives, may also be used as pronouns. See adjective pronouns.

Exercise 249. — 1. **Classify** the adjectives in Exercise 191.

2. **Construct ten sentences**, each containing a limiting and a descriptive adjective.

B. INFLECTION: CHANGES OF FORM.

COMPARISON.

Exercise 250. — 1. Lake Erie is a large lake.

2. Lake Michigan is larger than Lake Erie.

3. Lake Superior is the largest lake in the world.

1. Mention the descriptive adjectives in these sentences. 2. What two lakes are compared? 3. With reference to what quality are they compared? 4. Which of the two has that quality in the greater degree? 5. What change in the form of the adjective is made to show this? 6. With what is Lake Superior compared? 7. What lake is of greater size than Lake Superior? 8. What lake has the quality of size in the highest degree? 9. In these comparisons what changes do you notice in the form of the adjective?

432. Some adjectives are inflected to show that one object has *more of the quality* than others with which it is compared.

Thus, without making a comparison, we say, —

This is a **high** mountain ;

but, to show that another mountain with which we compare it has the quality of height in a *greater* degree, we add **er** to the adjective, and say, —

Mt. Lafayette is a **higher** mountain.

And if we wish to show that one mountain among all those we are considering has the quality of height in the *greatest* degree, we add **est** to the adjective, and say, —

Mt. Washington is the **highest** mountain in the state.

433. To add *er* and *est* to an adjective so that it may denote different degrees of a quality is to *compare* it.

434. Comparison is a change in an adjective to denote different degrees of the quality.

435. The *positive* degree of an adjective denotes the *simple* quality. As, *tall, heavy, sad.*

The *comparative* degree denotes a *higher* degree of the quality. As, *taller, heavier, sadder.*

The *superlative* degree denotes the *highest* degree of the quality. As, *tallest, heaviest, saddest.*

Exercise 251. — 1. Tell **which degree** of these adjectives is given : —

Happier ; nobler ; musty ; clearer ; slower ; nearest ; hot ; proper ; bright ; slender ; small ; politer ; fairest ; luckiest ; surest.

2. **Compare** the following adjectives [see § 491] : —

Thin ; feeble ; strong ; merry ; lofty ; brave ; short ; jolly ; pretty ; red ; coy ; gloomy ; keen ; shy ; rough ; great ; mighty ; lovely ; idle ; profound.

3. Which change **y** to **i** ? Which really add only **r** and **st** ? Which double the last consonant ?

436. Irregular comparison.—The following adjectives are compared in an irregular way, — sometimes by *quite different words* :—

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.	POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
Good	} better	best	Late	{ later	{ latest
Well			{ latter		
Bad	} worse	worst	Near	nearer	{ nearest
Ill			{ next		
Little	less	least	Old	{ older	{ oldest
Many	} more	most		{ elder	{ eldest
Much					
[Forth]	further	furthest	[In]	inner	{ inmost
Far	farther	farthest			{ innermost
Fore	former	{ first	[Out]	outer	{ outmost
		{ foremost			{ outermost
			[Up]	upper	uppermost

NOTE. — The words in brackets are adverbs. Several other superlatives are made by adding *-most* instead of *-est*. As, —

northern, northernmost ; southern, southernmost.

437. Many adjectives cannot be compared by inflection, since the addition of *er* and *est* would make awkward or ill-sounding words.

Hence a second method is employed by which *more* and *most* are used with the positive form to make the comparative and superlative. Thus :—

beautiful, *more* beautiful, *most* beautiful ;

Or we may use *less* and *least* to show degrees below the positive. Thus :—

remarkable, *less* remarkable, *least* remarkable.

438. The adjectives to which *er* and *est* may be added are words of one syllable and a few words of two syllables, chiefly those ending in *y* or *le*. As, —

Happy, hearty, ready ; noble, able ; polite, mellow, etc.

439. A few adjectives denote qualities that cannot exist in different degrees, and hence they can neither be compared nor modified by *more* and *most*. As, —

Dead, chief, square, equal, principal, spherical, etc.

NOTE. — Such forms as *rounder, straighter, truest*, are sometimes used as if they meant *more nearly round or straight, or nearest true*.

Exercise 252.—1. Change the adjectives to equivalent adjective phrases, and change the phrases to equivalent adjectives.

Handsome; more shallow; most sincere; fittest; more handy; sauciest; most ample; narrowest; slenderest; more nimble; braver; gentlest.

2. Change them all to phrases denoting **lower and lowest degrees**.

3. Tell which of the following adjectives are **not compared**, and give your reason: —

Luscious; empty; hollow; supreme; wrong; tenth; death; particular; false; vain; fashionable; naked; honest; lucrative; void; these; blind; equal; fatal; dry; wet; best; mean; dutiful; level.

440. Number.— Only two adjectives, *this* and *that*, change their form when used with nouns plural in meaning. Thus: —

this kind; **these** varieties; **that** reason; **those** reasons.

(a) **A** or **an**, **another**, **each**, **either**, **neither**, **many a**, **much**, and **one** are used only with singular nouns; and **both**, **many**, **several**, **sundry**, **divers**, and **most numeral adjectives**, only with plural nouns.

C. USES, OR CONSTRUCTIONS.

441. I. (a) An adjective may be *closely connected* with its noun as an *attribute*, or part of the name. Thus: —

Those | brave soldiers prepared for **the** | coming battle.

(b) Or it may be used *appositively*. Thus: —

The *enemy*, equally **brave**, began the conflict.
Cool and **resolute**, *they* awaited the onset.

442. II. It may be joined to a copulative verb as a *predicate* adjective, showing what is asserted of that which the subject names. Thus: —

The contest was **long and bloody**, and the result seemed **doubtful**.

(a) When an adjective [or a noun] is the complement of one of the infinitives or participles of a copulative verb, (1) It may refer to some word in the sentence. As in, —

Each army strove to be **victorious**. He tried to become **king**.
Having been **successful**, we pursued the enemy.

or (2) It may be used abstractly, without reference to any noun; as in, —

To be **intemperate** is to be **miserable**. Being **good** is one way of doing good. To become a **scholar** is a laudable desire.

443. III. An adjective may be joined to a transitive verb or verbal word as an *objective complement* to complete its meaning and at the same time add a quality to the object of it. [See § 223.] As in, —

His troubles made him **insane**. We tried to make him **comfortable**.

444. How to Parse an Adjective. — To parse an adjective we have to tell only its (1) *kind*, (2) *form*, — if comparative or superlative, — (3) *use*.

These forms may be followed: —

1. “(Full many a) gem (of purest ray serene)
(The) (dark), (unfathomed) caves (of ocean) bear.”
2. Do you know (⁺what) (American) historian was blind?
3. (Which) king (of England) had (six) wives?

many-a is a *limiting* adjective; used to modify **gem**.

purest is a *superlative*, *descriptive* adjective; used to modify **ray**.

American is a *proper*, *descriptive* adjective; used to modify **historian**.

what is a *conjunctive* adjective; used to modify **historian**.

blind is a *descriptive* adjective ; used as subjective complement of **was**, and referring to **historian**.

which is an *interrogative* adjective ; used to modify **king**.

six is a *numeral* adjective ; used to modify **wives**.

Exercise 253.— **Analyze** these sentences, and **parse** the adjectives.

1. Gentle rains revive the thirsty fields. 2. Firm-paced and slow, a horrid front they bore. 3. Calm and serene as the iron walls around him, stood Regulus the Roman. 4. Many amusements appear harmless which are really dangerous. 5. The painting looks attractive, but the artist does not seem satisfied. 6. A few critics have pronounced it perfect. 7. The government considered him competent to command. 8. Make the house where gods may dwell beautiful, entire, and clean. 9. Many try in vain to be happy. 10. The people found their new ruler to be cruel and blood-thirsty. 11. Appearing honest and being honest are very different things. 12. You must tell me about what things you see. 13. Medicine only made the patient worse. 14. To be prodigal in youth is to be needy in age. 15. Which course would you advise him to take? 16. Whatever efforts you make will be rewarded. 17. Fortune may make a man famous, but it cannot make him great. 18. It finds him poor ; it makes him rich.

445. Summary.— An adjective is a word that adds to the meaning of a noun or a pronoun, without asserting anything nor standing by itself as a name.

1. Kinds :

Descriptive	{	Qualitative.	2. Forms :	{	Positive.
		Participial.			Comparative.
Limiting	{	Proper.			Superlative.
		Article : Definite, Indefinite.			
		Numeral : Cardinal, Ordinal.			
		Demonstrative.			
		Interrogative.			
		Distributive.			
Conjunctive : Simple, Compound.					

3. Uses, or Construction :

1. **Modifies** the noun (or pronoun) —.
2. **Subjective Complement** of the verb (inf. or part.) —.
 - (a) Referring to —.
 - (b) Used abstractly.
3. **Objective Complement** of the verb (inf. or part.) —.

D. DIRECTIONS FOR THE USE OF ADJECTIVES.

446. A or An. *A should be used only before words beginning with consonant sounds, and an before words beginning with vowel sounds.* Thus : —

A house, an honor ; a wonder, a one, an onion, an ounce ; a yew, a ewe, a use, a unit, a eulogy, an urchin, an uncle.

NOTE. — One begins with the consonant sound of *w*, and long *u* begins with the consonant sound of *y*.

447. Article repeated. — *When two or more connected adjectives describe different objects, the article is used with each ; but when they describe the same object, the article is used with the first only.* Thus : —

A pink and a white dahlia (two flowers).

A pink and white dahlia (one flower).

448. Agreement. — *An adjective that implies one, or more than one, must agree in number with the noun that it limits.* Thus we should say, —

“**This** kind,” not “*these* kind” ; “three **feet** wide,” not “three *foot* wide” ; “**that** sort,” not “*those* sort” ; “six **pounds** of tea,” not “six *pound*.”

449. Such expressions as *a few, a dozen, a great many, a hundred, ten thousand, three hundred sixty-five, two and a half*, may be considered adjective phrases when they modify nouns.

450. Them. — *Never use “them” as an adjective.*

Expressions like “them books,” “them things,” are among the worst errors.

Exercise 254. — 1. Fill the blanks with *a, an, or the* when needed.

1. Brutus was — honorable man. 2. This is — universal truth.
3. He was — kind and — indulgent parent. 4. Omit — first and second stanzas. 5. — poor and — rich have equal rights. 6. She was married to — dignified and — kindly man.

2. Select the proper form, giving your reason.

1. I prefer (these, this) kind of rugs. 2. Did they use (that, those) hose at the fire? 3. You must avoid (those, that) sort of people. 4. I haven't seen him for (these, this) two weeks. 5. We must catch (them, those) horses.

451. Adjectives not compared. — *Do not compare adjectives so as to make ill-sounding or meaningless forms.*

Say the *most awkward* fellow, not the *awkwardest*; and *more nearly square*, rather than *squarer*.

452. Double Comparison. — *Do not modify comparatives by "more" nor superlatives by "most."*

For "They could not find a *more worthier* man," say, "a *worthier* man" or "a *more worthy* man." In "This is the *most unwise*st course," omit either *most* or *st*.

453. Forms Confused. — *Use the comparative form in comparing two objects, the superlative in comparing more than two. Thus:—*

Which is **better**, — health or wealth?

Which is **best**, — health, wealth, or learning?

454. "Other" misused. — *Do not spoil a comparison by wrongly inserting or omitting the word "other."* Thus:—

"New York is larger than any city in America," should of course be "than any *other* city in America"; and "Rhode Island is the smallest of all the other States," should be "of all the States."

455. Adverbs for Adjectives. — *Do not use an adjective where an adverb is needed.*

Not "move *slow*," but "move **slowly**"; not "*real* good," but "**really** or **very** good."

Exercise 255. — **Correct** the following sentences, giving your reason:—

1. Go very quick. 2. I never heard a more truer remark. 3. Which is largest, — the numerator or the denominator? 4. Which is the best writer, — James or Henry? 5. Speak loud and distinct. 6. This is the most quietest part of the city. 7. Let such an one rise, if present. 8. I never saw anything neater done. 9. Which is nearest the north pole, — Europe or Asia? 10. This copy is very perfect. 11. Were you weighed on that scales? 12. He is the awkwardest skater on the pond. 13. Of all my other friends, I like him best. 14. Brother Charles is taller than any member of our family.

456.

TO A WATER FOWL.

Whither, midst falling dew,
While glow the heavens with the last steps of day,
Far, through their rosy depths, dost thou pursue
Thy solitary way ?

Vainly the fowler's eye
Might mark thy distant flight to do thee wrong,
As, darkly seen against the crimson sky,
Thy figure floats along.

Seek'st thou the plashy brink
Of weedy lake, or marge of river wide,
Or where the rocking billows rise and sink
On the chafed ocean-side ?

There is a Power whose care
Teaches thy way along that pathless coast —
The desert and illimitable air —
Lone wandering, but not lost.

All day thy wings have fanned,
At that far height, the cold, thin atmosphere,
Yet stoop not, weary, to the welcome land,
Though the dark night is near.

And soon that toil shall end ;
Soon shalt thou find a summer home, and rest,
And scream among thy fellows ; reeds shall bend,
Soon, o'er thy sheltered nest.

Thou'rt gone ! The abyss of heaven
Hath swallowed up thy form ; yet, on my heart
Deeply hath sunk the lesson thou hast given,
And shall not soon depart.

He who, from zone to zone,
Guides through the boundless sky thy certain flight,
In the long way that I must tread alone,
Will lead my steps aright.

— *William Cullen Bryant.*

256. Suggestions.—Study the migrations of birds and other animals, and tell what you can about the subject.

1. Can you tell what species of bird is meant? 2. Is it one of a flock?
3. What is the time of day? Of the year? 4. Would the bird probably be in sight of the poet all day? 5. In the sixth stanza why did the poet write *scream* instead of *sing*? 6. Can you see any reason why the poet says *abyss of heaven*? What does it mean? 7. Why capital in *Power*? 8. What is the force of *zone to zone*? 9. Show the close connection between stanzas 5 and 6.
10. Should there be a period after *near*? 11. Would the arrangement be improved by putting the fourth stanza next to the last? 12. Make a list of all the words in the poem that would probably not be used in prose. 13. Tell what you can of the author.
14. Make a list of the descriptive adjectives. 15. Of the limiting adjectives. 16. Of the adjective phrases. 17. Of the adjective clauses. 18. This selection gives excellent opportunity for a review in analysis and parsing.

TEST QUESTIONS.

1. Explain the difference between descriptive and limiting adjectives.
2. Name three classes of limiting adjectives. 3. Use *which* as a conjunctive adjective. 4. Why is *what* sometimes called a conjunctive adjective? 5. How and why are adjectives compared? 6. What substitute is there for the comparative degree? 7. When is the superlative degree used? 8. What adjectives are not compared? 9. How do you discriminate in the use of *a* and *an*?
10. Mention three errors to be avoided in the use of adjectives. 11. Parse the adjectives in the following selection:—

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day;
 The lowing herds wind slowly o'er the lea;
 The plowman homeward plods his weary way,
 And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight,
 And all the air a solemn stillness holds;
 Save where the beetle wheels his droning flight,
 And drowsy tinklings lull the distant folds;

Save that from yonder ivy-mantled tower,
 The moping owl does to the moon complain
 Of such as, wandering near her secret bower,
 Molest her ancient solitary reign.

— *Thomas Gray.*

CHAPTER XIX.

VERBS.

A. KINDS.

457. The life of a sentence is the *verb* that it contains; for without a verb we cannot *assert* or *question* or *command* or *wish*.

458. In our study of the structure of sentences we have already learned that—

1. Most verbs express *action*, as *go*, *come*, *work*.
2. Some verbs denote a *state* or *condition*, as *be*, *dwell*, *seem*.
3. All verbs belong to one of two classes, (1) verbs of complete predication, or briefly, *complete* verbs, and (2) verbs of incomplete predication, or *incomplete* verbs. As, (1) The sun *rises*. (2) The sun *gives* light.

4. A *Complete* verb is one that may be used alone to make a predicate, as The earth *revolves*.

5. An *Incomplete* verb is one that needs another word to complete the predicate. As, The earth *is* a sphere. This part that completes the predicate is called the *complement* of the verb.

6. Incomplete verbs are of two kinds, copulative and transitive.

7. A *Copulative* verb is one that requires a complement that *describes* or *limits* its subject. As, Life *is* short. The Muses *were* nine in number.

8. A *Transitive* verb is one that has a complement which

shows who or what receives the action expressed by the verb. As, The fox *caught* the rabbit. The hunter *shot* the fox.

9. The *Complement* of a copulative verb is either a predicate noun or a predicate adjective, or else some phrase or clause used as its equivalent. As, Edward is *king*. The people are *loyal*. Lost time is *beyond recall*. Life is *what we make it*.

10. The complement of a *transitive* verb is a noun or pronoun or its equivalent, and is called an *object*. As, Receive *him* kindly. Bring *flowers*. Try to do *right*. Tell *why the birds sing*.

We sometimes speak of this object as the *direct* object, to distinguish it from the indirect.

11. Some transitive verbs, besides the direct object, take also an *indirect* object which shows *to* or *for whom* or *what* the action is performed. As, Give *me* time to think. Give the *lawn* a sprinkling.

12. A few transitive verbs, in addition to the direct object, may have a second complement referring to it. As, Make the path *smooth*. This is called the *objective* complement.

Such verbs are sometimes called *factitive* verbs.

459. Sometimes verbs are classified as *transitive* and *intransitive*, complete and copulative verbs forming the latter class. It is often convenient to use the term, *intransitive*.

460. Certain verbs are used without any real subject, the meaningless word *it* serving as an expletive. As,

It rains. *It has snowed* all night. *May it please* the court.

Such verbs are called *impersonal* verbs.

As we study verbs we shall find that they are also classified as *regular* and *irregular*, *principal* and *auxiliary*, *defective* and *redundant*, etc.

Exercise 257. — 1. Supply subjects to these verbs, and complements where they seem to be needed:—

Screamed; stays; fly; ate; cut; punished; grew; drink; seek; depart; talked; tears; looks; seemed; saw; were; became; found; arm; wore; feels; had; spoke; are; was.

2. Explain the difference between the two kinds of complements that you have added.

461. The same verb may belong to different classes, according to the different senses in which it is used. Thus, in the sentence, The trees **grow**, the verb **grow** is *complete* and cannot take an object; in, Stones **grow** old, the verb is incomplete and *copulative*, for it needs the complement "old" to describe the subject; and in, The florist's **grow** cuttings under glass, **grow** is still incomplete, but it is *transitive*, since its complement, instead of describing the subject, is an object, showing what the action affects.

462. The number of *copulative* verbs is small; one of them, however, is extremely common, namely, *be*, which — with its various forms, *am, is, was, were*, etc. — helps to make many verb phrases; as in —

"We are waiting," for "We wait."

(a) **Be** is sometimes used like "exist" as a *complete* verb with more of its original meaning; as in —

The time **was**, when no one lived here; There **has been** a frost,
but generally it seems only to connect the subject to what is asserted of it.
[See § 228.]

(b) **Be** enters into the meaning of all other copulative verbs. Thus:—

He **appeared** wise = **was** wise in appearance.
The clouds **look** distant = **are** distant to the sight.
The water **tastes** bitter = **is** bitter to the taste.

So with **feel, sound, smell, become, seem**, etc.

Exercise 258. — Point out the verbs the meaning of which is completed by some expression that is *descriptive of what the subject names*.

1. The case seems more hopeful. 2. Man became a living soul. 3. The man has turned fool. 4. He looks well and feels much stronger. 5. Why stand ye here idle? 6. All bloodless lay the untrodden snow. 7. He had

been called wise. 8. The English forces proved irresistible. 9. The shutters blew open. 10. The buds smell sweet, but they taste bitter. 11. Some men are born great.

463. Verbs that are usually transitive may also be used *intransitively*; *i.e.*, they may signify merely that something is done, nothing being said about what is affected by the action. So we say, —

“He stayed his wrath” or “He seldom stayed.”
 “He speaks English” or “He speaks slowly.”

464. Even verbs that are usually intransitive may sometimes take an object. Thus: —

Sit thee down. She *worked herself* to death. They *live* a dreary *life*, and are *running* a hopeless *race*. *Walk* your *horses* up hill.

Exercise 259. — Make short sentences showing how each verb may be used either *transitively* or *intransitively*: —

Answer; boils; dissolve; returned; smells; survive; break; fell; slipped; believes; becomes; shakes; rained; pulls; struck; drives; gnaw; sing; worries; felt; sounds; followed; rattled; tasted; fear; stay.

B. INFLECTION: CHANGES IN FORM.

465. As with nouns and pronouns, so with verbs, each has several forms made by inflection to correspond to changes in the use or in the meaning.

The phrases that are used instead of inflected forms we shall study later. [See page 235.]

1. TENSE FORMS.

Exercise 260. — 1. Tell whether the time referred to is *present* or *past*. If in doubt, add “now” or “yesterday.”

He thinks.	She rides.	It stood.	They fall.
I thought.	They caught.	We found.	Waves dash.
He catches.	I walked.	I lose.	Water freezes.
We study.	You wrote.	It grows.	Ice breaks.

2. Change each verb so that it will refer to some other time.

466. Nearly every verb has one *change of form* that affects the meaning as much as if it were modified by an adverb. Thus, speaking of the *present* time, we say, —

I come; I wait; I stay;

but if the coming, waiting, or staying took place at some time in the *past*, we say, —

I came; I waited; I stayed.

467. Tenses are the forms of a verb that distinguish time.

Exercise 261. — Tell whether the form of the verb denotes **present** or **past** time : —

I have.	Thou mayest.	He was.	Thou canst.	He shall.
He does.	You may.	I will.	You can.	Thou art.
I did.	He might.	They had.	They could.	He hath.
We were.	I am.	She has.	It is.	You should.

468. The present tense of a verb is the form that generally refers to present time.

469. About twenty verbs cannot be changed in this way, and the time is therefore shown by something besides the form ; as, —

Now we spread our tents. We spread them *yesterday*.

In such cases we may *call* the form present or past according to its *use*.

470. The present tense is sometimes used of what is *past* or *future* to make it seem present or distinct ; as, —

In the fifteenth century a new era **begins**.
We leave the city to-morrow.

471. In *form* the present tense is like the *simple infinitive*, or *root*, from which all other forms are derived.

472. The past tense of a verb is the form that generally refers to past time.

473. The past tense is sometimes used of what is really *present* or *future* to make it seem doubtful ; as, —

If I **were** well to-day — If I **should** go to-morrow —

474. The common or regular way of changing the present to the past form is by *adding ed*. Thus:—

I called; I borrowed; I waited.

But in a number of the oldest verbs the change appears in the middle of the word, whether anything is added or not. Thus:—

stand, stood; fall, fell; see, saw.

Exercise 262.— Write the **present tense** of—

Patted; played; began; could; caught; worked; stood; walked; chose; came; waited; bit; tried; crept; struck; blew; broke; flew; gazed; brought; burnt; whipped; did; bled; dug.

Write the **past tense** of as many of these as you can:—

Work; write; make; wear; think; till; love; take; strike; see; pour; steal; speak; sit; sell; run; ride; guess; smoke; give; part; drive; dream; ask; try.

2. NUMBER AND PERSON.

475. The differences in the special indicative forms of a verb depend on what its subject is. Thus, in the *present* tense we say,—

I	}	go	He	}	goes
We			She		
You			It		
They			The man		
The men					
		stay			stays

using a *special form* made by adding *s* or *es* whenever the subject is a third-singular pronoun or a singular noun.

476. As this special form is never used except with a subject denoting the *third person* and the *singular number*, it is called the *third-singular* form. It is also called the *s-form*, because it always ends in *s*.

Exercise 263.—Use every one of these words in succession to fill each blank, and spell the **third-singular form** of the verb :—

I, you, he, we, you, she, they, we, it, the men, the man.

— go,	— find,	— perch,	— deny,	— smash,
— wish,	— ply,	— crouch,	— watch,	— cry,
— have,	— do,	— row,	— lie,	— lay.

477. Changes to suit the person and number of the subject were once much more common than now, and two old-style forms, such as we see in the Bible, are still used, especially in prayer and in poetry. Thus :—

(a) With **thou** as subject the verb takes the ending **st** or **est** in both the present and past indicative tenses. For example :—

Thou **waitest**. Thou **waitedst**. Thou **goest**. Thou **stoodst**;

and (b) instead of the customary third-singular form in **s**, a form ending in **th** or **eth** may be used in the present tense. Thus :—

She **giveth**. He **goeth**. The wind **bloweth**.

EXCEPTIONS. — The verb **be** keeps many of its old changes of form as shown in § 528.

Dare (meaning *venture*), and **need**, sometimes take no added **s** with a third-singular subject. Thus :—

He dare not go.	He dares you to do it.
He need not stay.	He needs a coat.

478. The meaning of the verb is hardly affected by such changes, for they only show to which one or to how many the statement applies ; but as they are made according to the meaning of the subject, that is sometimes said “to govern” the verb, and the verb is said “to agree with its subject.”

3. VERBAL NOUNS AND VERBAL ADJECTIVES.*

479. By inflecting a verb in these different ways, we change the *form*, the *application*, and sometimes the *use* of it ; but so long as it can predicate in any way, it still remains a verb.

We now come to certain other *verbal forms* that do not predicate anything, and therefore are *not* verbs like the rest.

* *To the Teacher.*—Infinitives and participles are briefly treated at this time that the student may have an intelligent idea of inflected verb-forms and of the composition of verb-phrases. A fuller treatment is presented elsewhere.

Exercise 264. — 1. Which of these verbal words and expressions cannot by themselves form the predicate of a sentence ?

grow	took	broken	flying	give
running	goes	flew	fallen	grown
come	worked	playing	to take	to wait

2. Which may be **nouns**, and which **adjectives** ?

480. From almost every verb are formed two special kinds of verbal words having the *use of other parts of speech*.

Thus, besides the true *verbs* **drives**, **drove**, we have two *nouns*, **driving** and **(to) drive**, that name the action expressed by the verb ; as in —

Driving is pleasant ; I like to **drive**.

and two *adjectives*, **driving** and **driven**, that describe either the actor or the receiver of the action ; as in, —

A man **driving** : Snow **driven** by the wind.

481. Such nouns and adjectives as these differ from all others that are derived from verbs, since they may be formed from almost *any verb* ; and, what is still more important to notice, they may have the *same modifiers* that verbs have. Thus : —

(1) The **nouns**, if derived from transitive verbs, may take an object. As in —

Driving fast horses is pleasant ;

and they always may be modified by an adverb. As in, —

I like to **drive slowly**.

Here **driving** and **to drive** are used as subject and object, respectively ; but, like verbs, they express action as passing over to something else, or as going on in different ways.

(2) So with **adjectives**, we may say, —

“ a man **beating a dog**,” or “ a dog **cruelly beaten**.”

Here **beating** and **beaten** describe the man and the dog like adjectives, and are modified like verbs. There is no assertion in either expression, yet we think of the man as acting and of the dog as acted upon, as much as if a verb were used.

Exercise 265. — Find all the verbal nouns and verbal adjectives.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Horses drawing stone. | 6. Ducks shot by a hunter. |
| 2. Stone drawn by horses. | 7. To work is to win. |
| 3. To draw well requires skill. | 8. Telling lies hardens the heart. |
| 4. A good teacher of drawing. | 9. The house standing back from
the road. |
| 5. Ducks swimming in the lake. | |
| 10. Fields plowed in the early fall. | |
| 11. An empty boat carried over the falls. | |
| 12. A long-boat carrying several shipwrecked passengers. | |
| 13. The habit of smoking tobacco or of playing with fire. | |
| 14. To waste in youth is to want in age. | |

482. 1. The *first* of the two nouns is the root or simplest form of the verb, either with or without the sign *to* before it; as, —

(to) drive, (to) spin, (to) sleep, (to) walk.

This is called the *root infinitive*, or simply the *infinitive*.

2. The *second* verbal noun is formed with the ending *ing*; as, —

driving, spinning, sleeping, walking.

This is called the *infinitive in ing*,* or *Gerund*. It is often treated in all respects like a noun (§ 289), having similar uses and modifiers. Thus: —

(Rapid) driving (in crowded streets) is dangerous.

* *To the Teacher.* — (1) The root-infinitive, with or without "to," is a noun, and is sprung from an old infinitive that in its inflected form was governed by the preposition "to."

The infinitive in "ing," judged by its use, is even more apparently a noun, and is sprung from a verbal noun that had no verbal uses and certainly no adjective uses.

Both infinitives are *abstract nouns*; e.g., *living* = *existence*.

(2) The participles are always adjectives in sense, and both are sprung from participles; but both may be used as *concrete nouns*, like many other adjectives; e.g., *the living* = *those who have life*.

(3) The names *infinitive* and *participle*, like the names of all the parts of speech, are applied according to uses, not according to forms.

Exercise 266. — 1. Select the infinitives, and, if possible, tell how they are used.

1. These are wagons for carrying corn. 2. Writing letters is making signs. 3. Have you ever tried writing with your left hand? 4. We ran to the rescue. 5. We ran to rescue them. 6. To write letters easily is an accomplishment. 7. He came to stay here for his health. 8. He has tried to walk without his crutches. 9. His physician forbade him to run after eating. 10. I desire to go. I wish to go. I will go.

2. When possible, substitute the other infinitive for the one given in these sentences.

3. Form the infinitive of any ten verbs.

483. An Infinitive is a verbal noun. It names the action or condition expressed by the verb, and takes the same complements and modifiers.

NOTE. — The word "infinitive" means *infinite, unlimited*. It is applied to these forms because the idea of the verb is never limited as to person and number.

484. The two *adjectives* found among the inflected forms of verbs are called *Participles*.

485. One participle describes a person or thing as *continuing* an action. It is called the *active* or *imperfect participle*, and always ends in *ing*; as, —

driving, spinning, sleeping, walking.

486. The other participle is called the *passive* or *perfect participle*, because what it describes is regarded either (a) as *having received the action* expressed by the verb; as in —

Threads are spun, Cattle are driven;

or else (b) as *having completed* some action; as in —

One who has walked or slept.

This participle usually ends in *t*, *d*, or *n*.

NOTE. — The names present and past are also used.

Exercise 267.—Select the participles. Tell from what verb each is derived, what each describes, and what its modifiers are.

A fisherman leaving the shore pulled out to the sunken reef in a boat kept for his use. Hearing a ship pounding on the rocks, he rowed till he could see the crew bound or clinging half-frozen to the shattered masts. They were partly hidden by the fog, and partly by patches of torn sails.

487. A Participle is a verbal adjective. It shares or participates in the nature of a verb and of an adjective.

488. These verbal nouns and adjectives are given along with other verb forms, because —

- (1) They are made from almost every verb ;
- (2) Most verb phrases are formed by help of them ; and —
- (3) They take the same kind of complements and modifiers that verbs take.

CONJUGATION.

489. The Conjugation of a verb is the orderly arrangement of its inflected and phrase forms.

“Conjugation” means *yoking or joining together*.

490. We shall find that there are commonly but *seven or eight* changes made in the verb by inflection. Thus, the common inflected forms of *wait* and *give* are —

<i>Root.</i>	<i>S-form.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Imperf. Part.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
wait,	waits,	waited,	waiting,	(waited).
give,	gives,	gave,	giving,	given.

Besides these common forms we have the solemn forms, —

waitest, waitedst, waiteth : givest, gavest, giveth.

491. Rules for Spelling.—I. *The third-singular form of the present indicative is made by adding s to the root-form, or es, when needed for the sound. If the verb ends in y after a consonant, y is changed to i, and es is added.* [See § 305.] As, —

Make, makes ; go, goes ; wish, wishes ; defy, defies.

EXCEPTION. Have becomes has (not *haves*).

II. *Silent e is dropped before the suffixes er, ed, ing, etc.* As, —

Hope, hoped, hoping, hopest, hopeth.

EXCEPTIONS. *Hoe, shoe, toe, dye, singe, and tinge* retain the *e* before *ing*. *Die* becomes *dying*; *have* becomes *had* (not *haved*).

III. *Monosyllables, and dissyllables accented on the second syllable, if they end in a single consonant after a single vowel, double the final consonant before er, ed, ing, etc.* As, —

Sad, sadder, saddest; hop, hopped, hopping; refer, referred.

IV. *To verbs ending in ic, k is added before all endings but s.* As, —

Traffic, trafficked, trafficking.

Exercise 268. — Write in columns the five common forms of these verbs. Thus: —

Root.	S-form.	Past Tense.	Imperf. Part.	Perf. Part.
try,	tries,	tried,	trying,	tried.
rob,	robs,	robbed,	robbing,	robbed.

[See page 228 for forms that you do not know.]

Omit; do; carpet; dry; defer; wrap; befit; submit; behave; echo; differ; bar; benefit; live; merit; ship; glorify; have; equip; regret; save; slap; concur; gaze; search; quit; compel; gossip; sing; singe.

492. Regular and Irregular Verbs. — We see that the two verbs *wait* and *give* are changed in different ways. The past tense and the perfect participle of *wait* are formed *alike*, that is by adding *ed*. Thus: —

wait, waited, waited.

But in *give* these two parts are *unlike*, being formed without the use of *ed*. Thus: —

give, gave, given.

Elsewhere the changes are the same, and in order to conjugate any verb we commonly need to know only how these two forms are made.

493. Most verbs * form the past tense and the perfect participle by adding *ed* to the root, and are called *Regular Verbs*. All other verbs are called *Irregular*.† For example : —

	ROOT- INF.	PAST TENSE	PERF. PART.		ROOT- INF.	PAST TENSE.	PERF. PART.
<i>Regular</i>	{ wait,	waited,	waited.	<i>Irregular</i>	{ give,	gave,	given.
	{ call,	called,	called.		{ fall,	fell,	fallen.

494. These three forms, the *infinitive*, the *past tense*, and the *perfect participle*, are called the *Principal Parts* of the verb, because when they are known, the whole conjugation of the verb can be given.

495. **Double Forms.**— Some verbs have *both regular and irregular forms* for the past tense, or for the perfect participle, or for both. Sometimes these forms differ in meaning, and frequently in use, but generally either may be used.

Such verbs are called *redundant*.

Six verbs in the following list lack one or more of their principal parts. They are called *defective* verbs.

* All but about two hundred of the thousands of verbs in the language.

† *To the Teacher.* — Though for convenience we may distinguish verbs as “regular” and “irregular,” it is proper and useful to bear in mind the genuine classification of them into — (I.) *Verbs of the New Conjugation* (comprising all that are “regular” and some that are “irregular”), in which the past tense and the perfect participle ordinarily add *ed*, *d*, or *t*, but have in some cases been changed for ease of utterance : and — (II.) *Verbs of the Old Conjugation* (all called “irregular”), which after a *change of vowel sound* for the past tense, and after the addition of *en* or *n* for the participle, have often undergone euphonic changes. Other terms are *Weak Conjugation* and *Strong Conjugation*.

The first class includes all new verbs and some others. Verbs of the second class, designated by heavy type in the list (p. 228), all belong to the oldest stage of the language.

LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

(For reference.)

496. [Forms now out of use or rare are as a rule omitted. Otherwise the list contains all verb-forms of the old conjugation printed in *bold-faced* type, and all irregular verbs of the new conjugation printed in *plain* type. Where only part of the forms are irregular, the regular forms are given too.]

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.	PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.
Abide	abode	abode	Bring	brought	brought
Awake	{ awoke awaked	awaked	Build	{ built buildied	{ built buildied
Be (pres. am)	{ was	been	Burn	{ burned burnt	{ burned burnt
Bear	{ bore bare	{ borne <small>[carried]</small> born <small>[brought forth]</small>	Burst	burst	burst
Beat	beat	beaten	Buy	bought	bought
Begin	began	begun	Can	could	—
Bend	bent	bent	Cast	cast	cast
Bereave	{ bereft bereaved	{ bereft bereaved	Catch	caught	caught
Beseech	besought	besought	Chide	{ chid	{ chidden chid
Bet	{ betted bet	{ betted bet	Choose	chose	chosen
Bid	{ bade bid	{ bidden bid	Cleave *	{ cleve <small>[split]</small>	{ cloven cleft
Bind	bound	bound	Cling	clung	clung
Bite	bit	{ bitten bit	Clothe	{ clothed clad	{ clothed clad
Bleed	bled	bled	Come	came	come
Blend	{ blended blent	{ blended blent	Cost	cost	cost
Bless	{ blessed	{ blessed blest	Creep	crept	crept
Blow	blew	blown	Crow	{ crew crowed	{ — crowed
Break	broke	broken	Cut	cut	cut
Breed	bred	bred	Dare	{ dared durst <small>[ventured]</small>	dared
			Deal	dealt	dealt
			Dig	{ dug digged	{ dug digged

* *Cleave*, meaning *adhere*, is regular.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.	PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.
Do	did	done	Heave	{ hove	{ hoven
Draw	drew	drawn		{ heaved	{ heaved
Dream	{ dreamed	{ dreamed	Hew	{ hewed	{ hewed
	{ dreamt	{ dreamt		{ —	{ hewn
Drink	drank	drunk	Hide	hid	{ hidden
Drive	drove	driven			{ hid
Dwell	{ dwelt	{ dwelt	Hit	hit	hit
	{ dwelled	{ dwelled	Hold	held	held
Eat	ate	eaten	Hurt	hurt	hurt
Fall	fell	fallen	Keep	kept	kept
Feed	fed	fed	Kneel	{ knelt	{ knelt
Feel	felt	felt		{ kneeled	{ kneeled
Fight	fought	fought	Knit	{ knit	{ knit
Find	found	found		{ knitted	{ knitted
Flee	fled	fled	Know	knew	known
Fling	flung	flung	Lade	laded	{ laded
Fly	flew	flown			{ laden
Forget	{ forgot	{ forgotten	Lay	laid	laid
		{ forgot	Lead	led	led
Forsake	forsook	forsaken	Leap	{ leaped	{ leaped
Freeze	froze	frozen		{ leapt	{ leapt
Get	got	{ got	Learn	{ learned	{ learned
		{ gotten		{ learnt	{ learnt
Gild	gilded	{ gilded	Leave	left	left
		{ gilt	Lend	lent	lent
Gird	{ girded	{ girded	Let	let	let
	{ girt	{ girt	Lie	lay	lain
Give	gave	given	Lose	lost	lost
Go	[went]	gone	Make	made	made
Grave	{ —	{ graven	May	might	—
	{ graved	{ graved	Mean	meant	meant
Grind	ground	ground	Meet	met	met
Grow	grew	grown	Mow	mowed	{ mowed
Hang *	hung	hung			{ mown
Have	had	had	Must	—	—
Hear	heard	heard	Ought	—	—

* *Hang*, meaning *cause death*, is regular.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.	PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.
Past	passed	{ passed past	Shoe	shod	shod
Pay	paid	paid	Shoot	shot	shot
Pen	{ penned pent	{ penned pent	Show	{ showed shod	{ shown showed
Put	put	put	Shred	shred	shred
Quit	{ quit quitted	{ quit quitted	Shrink	{ shrank shrunken	{ shrank shrunken
—	quoth	—	Shrive	{ shrived shrove	{ shriven shrove
Rēad	rēad	rēad	Shut	shut	shut
Rend	rent	{ rent rended	Sing	{ sang sung	sung
Rid	rid	rid	Sink	sank	sunk
Ride	rode	ridden	Sit	sat	sat
Ring	rang	rung	Slay	slew	slain
Rise	rose	risen	Sleep	slept	slept
Rive	{ — rived	{ riven rived	Slide	slid	{ slidden slid
Run	ran	run	Sling	slung	slung
Saw	sawed	{ sawed sawn	Slink	slunk	slunk
Say	said	said	Slit	slit	slit
See	saw	seen	Smell	{ smelled smelt	{ smelled smelt
Seek	sought	sought	Smite	smote	smitten
Sell	sold	sold	Sowed	sowed	{ sowed sown
Send	sent	sent	Speak	{ spoke spake	{ spoken spoken
Set	set	set	Speed	sped	sped
Shake	shook	shaken	Spell	{ spelled spelt	{ spelled spelt
Shall	should	—	Spend	spent	spent
Shape	shaped	{ shaped shapen	Spill	{ spilled spilt	{ spilled spilt
Shave	shaved	{ shaved shaven	Spin	spun	spun
Shear	sheared	{ sheared shorn	Spit	{ spit spat	{ spit spit
Shed	shed	shed	Split	split	split
Shine	{ shone shined	{ shone shined	Spoil	{ spoiled spoil	{ spoiled spoiled
			Spread	spread	spread

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.	PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.
Spring	sprang	sprung	Take	took	taken
Stand	stood	stood	Teach	taught	taught
Stave	{ staved	{ staved	Tear	tore	torn
	{ stove	{ stove	Tell	told	told
Steal	stole	stolen	Think	thought	thought
Stick	stuck	stuck	Thrive	{ throve	{ thriven
Sting	stung	stung		{ thrived	{ thrived
Stink	{ stank	{ stunk	Throw	threw	thrown
	{ stunk		Thrust	thrust	thrust
Strew	{ —	{ strewed	Tread	trod	{ trodden
	{ strewed				{ trod
Stride	strode	stridden	Wake	{ waked	waked
				{ woke	
Strike	struck	{ struck	Wear	wore	worn
		{ stricken	Weave	wove	woven
String	strung	strung	Weep	wept	wept
Strive	strove	striven	Wet	wet	wet
Strow	{ —	{ strown	Will *	would	—
	{ strowed		Win	won	won
Swear	swore	sworn	Wind	wound	wound
Sweat	{ sweat	{ sweat	Wit	wist	—
	{ sweated	{ sweated	Work	{ worked	{ worked
Swell	{ —	{ swollen		{ wrought	{ wrought
	{ swelled	{ swelled	Wring	wrung	wrung
Swim	swam	swum	Write	wrote	written
Swing	swung	swung			

Exercise 269.—1. I — it now. 2. I — it yesterday. 3. I have — to-day.

Fill the blanks with the principal parts of the following verbs:—

Bear; beat; begin; bite; blow; break; bring; buy; catch; choose; do; draw; drink; drive; eat; find; forget; forsake; freeze; give; have; hide; know; lay; leave; make; mean; rend; ride; ring; see; seek; set; shake; show; slay; smite; sow; speak; spin; spring; strike; take; throw; weave; wear; wring; write.

Exercise 270.—1. They may —. 2. They — yesterday. 3. They had already —.

Use the principal parts of the following verbs to fill the blanks:—

Become; bid; come; crow; fall; flee; fly; grow; lie; rise; raise; shine; shrink; sing; sit; slide; stand; steal; stride; strive; swear; swim; think; tread.

* *Will*, meaning *bequeath*, is regular.

4. MODES.

497. If we study verbs in sentences we find them used to predicate in several ways or modes. Thus, they may be used —

1. **To command**; As, **Be** ready; **Wish** with me.
2. **To question**; As, **Is** he ready? Who **wishes** this?
To assert positively; As, I am ready; She **wishes** it.
3. **To say something doubtfully, as if only thought of**; As,
If it **be** there I will bring it; If I **were** ready I would go.

498. It was once the custom to use in such cases quite different forms of the verb called *Modes*, to show the manner or mood in which a person spoke. Comparatively few of these forms remain; and hardly any of them, or even the phrases that have replaced them, are now invariably used in any one way. Still it is customary to say that verbs are in the *indicative*, *imperative*, or *subjunctive* modes, according as they represent *facts*, *commands*, or only *thoughts*.

499. **Indicative Mode.** — The most common of these modes is the indicative; for generally our statements are presented as *facts*, or at least we *assume* them to be facts.

500. A verb is in the *Indicative Mode* when used —

1. *To state something as a fact.*
2. *To ask a simple question.*

The verbs in the following sentences are all in the indicative mode. Try to tell why.

He *goes* quickly. Does she *wish* it? Fish *can live* only in the water. We *shall rise* at daybreak. You *may go* now. *Can* you *analyze* the sentence? If she *was* there I *failed* to see her. If he *comes*, — as he probably will, — I *shall meet* him. If he *was* poor he *was* honest. I *could have gone* yesterday. Perhaps it *is* true.

501. Imperative Mode. — A verb is in the imperative mode when it expresses a *command*, a *request*, or an *entreaty*. As in —

Go quickly. **Come** with me. **Do** be honest.

502. A command, etc., is generally given to some person or persons addressed by name, or who are so well known as not to need mention, and so the subject of the imperative is commonly omitted. It is always of the second person, and may be singular or plural. It is sometimes expressed for the sake of emphasis. As, —

Hear me, my friends. **Go** thou and **do** likewise.

In *form* the imperative is always the simple root of the verb, and it is always of the present tense.

In such expressions as Thou *shalt* not *steal*, You *will* go now, You *must* pass out at once, the indicative mode is used instead of the imperative for much the same purpose.

503. Subjunctive Mode. — The subjunctive mode expresses not what is real and actual, but rather what is only *thought of* as a possibility.

The distinctive forms that characterize it are giving way to indicative forms, and are little used now-a-days in spoken language. They abound, however, in literature, and are still carefully used by discriminating writers. It is well to insist upon the use of some of them.

504. A verb in the *Subjunctive Mode* * is used to express —

1. *What is uncertain, and to be decided in the future;*
2. *A supposition that is contrary to fact;*
3. *A wish.*

Some verbs in the following sentences are in the subjunctive mode. Tell which and why.

1. Though he **be** dead we shall find him.
Even if he **fall** he will not despair.
If the wind **be** fair, the ship may sail.

* *To the Teacher.* — For a fuller discussion of the Subjunctive, see Appendix.

2. If he **were** willing I would help him.
 If he **were** rich, he would give liberally.
Were she able she would come to me.
3. I wish I **were** well. O that he **were** here!
 Thy kingdom **come**. Long **live** the King !

505. The subjunctive is generally found in *subjoined* or subordinate clauses introduced by *if, though, unless, except, lest*, etc. Not all clauses thus introduced, however, contain subjunctives.

506. Subjunctive forms differ from the indicative in dropping all *personal* endings. Thus : —

Indicative: goes, stays, risest, sawest, keepeth, lovedst.

Subjunctive: go, stay, rise, saw, keep, loved.

This becomes more apparent when some of the forms of *be* are placed in contrast. Thus : —

Present : I am, Thou art, He is, We are, You are, They are.

Present : I be, Thou be, He be, We be, You be, They be.

Past : I was, Thou wast, He was, We were, You were, They were.

Past : I were, Thou wert, He were, We were, You were, They were.

507. Modes are inflected or phrase forms of verbs which show the manner of asserting.

Exercise 271.—Select from the following sentences five verbs that express a command ; three that express a wish or a supposition contrary to the fact ; three that state something as uncertain and to be decided in the future ; three that assert a condition assumed to be a fact ; five that state facts positively :—

1. Clouds bring rain. 2. Dare to do right. 3. I wish my father were here. 4. The eclipse was total. 5. A robin built its nest in our elm. 6. If I am not paid, I work hard. 7. Speak kindly to the erring. 8. He would be a spendthrift if he were rich. 9. If he was severe, he was not unjust. 10. The crew furl'd the sails. 11. Be just, and fear not. 12. Improve your opportunity before it be lost. 13. I should go even if the danger were greater. 14. If the truth be known, no harm can result. 15. Though she was there, I did not see her. 16. If it be fair, we shall go.

D. VERB PHRASES.

SUBSTITUTES FOR INFLECTED FORMS.

508. English verbs have no changes *in form* other than those already mentioned. In some languages the number of forms is much greater; but in English all other variations in time, and so on, must be expressed in a round-about way by what are called *Verb phrases*.

509. *Verb phrases* are made by using some root infinitive or participle as the complement of another verb. As, —

He | will go. They | have waited. She | may write.
It | is coming. It | was built.

510. The verbs that are used with infinitives and participles merely to make verb phrases, are called *Auxiliary* (i.e., *helping*) verbs.

511. The Principal Parts of the Auxiliary verbs are, —

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.	PRESENT.	PAST.	PERF. PART.
shall	should	—	must	—	—
will	would	—	do	did	done
may	might	—	be	was	been
can	could	—	have	had	had

(a) The indicative forms used in the solemn or poetic style, with **thou** as subject, are, —

PRESENT.	PAST.	PRESENT.	PAST.
shalt	shouldst	canst	couldst
wilt	wouldst	dost, doest	didst
mayest } mayst }	mightest	art	wast, wert
		hast	hadst

1. FUTURE TENSE.

Phrases made with *Shall* and *Will*.

512. When we wish to predict that anything is to happen in time to come, we say, —

*I shall take; He will take;**

using the present tense of “*shall*” and of “*will*” to help us in expressing the idea of *taking as future*.

513. Future Tense phrases are formed with “*shall*” or “*will*” and a root infinitive, and denote future time.

514. The parts of any verb phrase may be separated by other words; as in —

He *will* not go.

We *shall*, in all probability, fail.

Will she not sing?

Shall you and your friends remain?

515. By carefully choosing between the different uses of *shall* and *will* (§ 555), we can make future phrases that will *promise*, instead of *predict*.

Exercise 272. — Make sentences, using the future tense of each of these forms:—

Went; caught; drove; blown; hid; trod; rejoiced; sang; sprung; said; lied; lain; came; flew; flow.

2. PERFECT TENSES.

“*Have*” as an Auxiliary.

516. I. Present Perfect. — Whenever we wish to speak of an action as *completed at the present time*, we do not say, —

I buy it to-day, but I have bought it to-day, —

* Do not think that “*take*” is the real verb here: “*shall*” or “*will*” is the verb, and the infinitive “*take*” is the object of it. The phrase that they together make is called the *future tense of the indicative*; for the auxiliaries have lost much of their original meaning, and are now little more than *signs* of the future tense.

using the present tense of the auxiliary *have*, and the *perfect participle* of some verb. So, too, —

The town **has grown** this year. It **has occurred** twice this century.

517. II. Past Perfect. — In speaking of an action as *completed* at some definite *past* time, we use the past form *had* with the *perfect participle*. Thus: —

They **had gone** before I arrived.

518. III. Future Perfect. — If we wish to speak of an action as *completed* at some *future* time, we use the future tense, *shall* or *will have*, with the *perfect participle*, and say, —

The sun **will have risen** before our arrival.

519. Phrases that denote completed or perfected actions are called Perfect Tenses. They are formed by combining the perfect participle of any verb with the various tenses of "have."

520. We see then that by inflection and by the use of auxiliaries we form *six* tenses; namely, —

Present: I hear.

Present Perfect: I have heard.

Past: I heard.

Past Perfect: I had heard.

Future: I shall hear.

Future Perfect: I shall have heard.

Exercise 273. — Tell whether the verb shows present, past, or future time, and give the corresponding **perfect** form of that tense; *i.e.*, the **perfect tense phrase**: —

1. He sings well.
2. He wrote yesterday.
3. They will go to-morrow.
4. They could not wait.
5. They should obey their parents.
6. She had an instructor.
7. We shall set out on his return.
8. Can it be true?
9. What could he answer?
10. Would he welcome you?

3. POTENTIAL FORMS.

"May," "can," and "must" used as Auxiliaries.

521. *May*, *can*, and *must* are used with root infinitives to make what are called *Potential* phrases, that express what is *possible, conditional, or obligatory*.*

May implies *permission*, *can* implies *ability* or *power*, *must* implies *obligation* or *necessity*; but, as they often lose their proper meaning and become mere auxiliaries, they are given as parts of the conjugation of the verb that they help.

522. The present forms, *may*, *can*, and *must* generally give a *present* meaning. Thus:—

You **may** go; *i. e.*, you have *permission* to go.

We **can** give; *i. e.*, we *are able* to give.

The engine **can** draw the train; *i. e.*, it *has the power* to draw it.

I **must** go; *i. e.*, I am *obliged* to go.

It **must** be sold; *i. e.*, the sale of it is *necessary*.

523. **May** and **can** sometimes have a *future* or *subjunctive* meaning; as in—

You **may** slip = perhaps you *will* slip.

I shall come if I **can**; *i. e.*, if it *be* possible.

524. The past forms *might* and *could* may give a *past* meaning to the phrase; as in—

He **could** not wait = he *was* not able to wait;

or they may give a *subjunctive* meaning, as of something merely thought of. Thus:—

If he were here, he **could** not wait.

He **might** be useful, though hard to manage.

* *To the Teacher*.—Potential phrases are generally in the indicative mode. They sometimes have a subjunctive force, however. Teachers who prefer to call potential phrases verbs in the potential mode, are of course at liberty to do so, but the weight of expert authority is overwhelmingly in favor of the classification followed in this book.

525. **Should**, the past tense of "shall," is sometimes used with a present meaning to denote a duty or obligation; as in—

You **should** do as you are bidden. [See § 558.]

526. Potential phrases denote permission, power, obligation, or necessity. They are formed by using the auxiliaries may, can, must, might, could, would, or should, with the root infinitive.

Exercise 274.—Using the infinitive of each of the following words, make sentences containing potential phrases, and tell whether they denote permission, power, obligation, etc. :—

Speak; borne; broken; chid; drew; feel; sat; froze; slain; shod; smote; swung; swept; thrust; raised; rose.

Conjugation of the Irregular Verb "Give."

527. Below will be found the common inflected and phrase forms of the verb *give* in the various modes and tenses.

The first column contains the singular, and the second column the plural forms. The figures 1, 2, 3, indicate the person. The solemn forms with *Thou* as subject will be found elsewhere.

Principal Parts.—*Present*, give; *Past*, gave; *Perfect Participle*, given.

Indicative Mode.

Present:	1. I	} give	1. We	} give
	2. You		2. You	
	3. He		3. They	
Past:	1. I	} gave	1. We	} gave
	2. You		2. You	
	3. He		3. They	
Future:	1. I	} shall give	1. We	} shall give
	2. You		2. You	
	3. He		3. They	
Present Perfect:	1. I	} have given	1. We	} have given
	2. You		2. You	
	3. He		3. They	

Past	1. I	} had given	1. We	} had given
Perfect:	2. You		2. You	
	3. He		3. They	
Future	1. I	shall have given	1. We	shall have given
Perfect:	2. You	} will have given	2. You	} will have given
	3. He		3. They	

Potential Phrases.

Present:	Any subject but <i>Thou</i> may be used	{ may, can, must	} give
Past:			
Present Perfect:		{ may, can, must	
Past Perfect:			

Subjunctive Mode.

Present:	1. (If) I	} give	1. (If) we	} give
	2. (If) Thou		2. (If) you	
	3. (If) he		3. (If) they	
Past:	1. (If) I	} gave	1. (If) we	} gave
	2. (If) Thou		2. (If) you	
	3. (If) he		3. (If) they	

Imperative Mode: *Present* give, give

Infinitive: } *Present*, (to) give
 } *Perfect*, to have given

Gerund: } *Present*, giving
 } *Perfect*, having given

Participles: { *Perfect*, given
 { *Present Perfect*, hav-
 ing given.

In a similar way conjugate the verbs *drive*, *make*, *write*, *drink*, *lay*, *lie*, *find*.

Conjugation of the Irregular Verb "Be."

528. The verb *be* not only keeps many of the old forms, but is really made up of three different verbs, — the infinitives and participles *be*, *being*, *been*, from one root; the present tense, *am*, *are*, etc., from another; and the past *was*, *were*, from a third. Its inflected and phrase forms are as follows:

Principal Parts: *Present*, be. *Past*, was. *Perfect Participle*, been.

Indicative Mode.

	I am	We	} are
Present:	You are	You	
	He is	They	
	I was	We	} were
Past:	You were	You	
	He was	They	
	I shall be	We	} shall be
Future:	You } will be	You	
	He } will be	They	
Present Perfect:	I } have been	We	} have been
	You } have been	You	
	He has been	They	
Past Perfect:	I } had been	We	} had been
	You } had been	You	
	He } had been	They	
Future Perfect:	I shall } have been	We shall	} have been
	You will } have been	You will	
	He will } have been	They will	

Potential Phrases.

Present:	With any subject but Thou	{	may, can, must	} be	
Past:			might, could, would, should		
Present Perfect:			may, can, must		} have been
Past Perfect:			might, could, would, should		

Subjunctive Mode.

Present:	(If) I } be	(If) we } be
	(If) You } be	(If) you } be
	(If) He } be	(If) they } be
Past:	(If) I } were	(If) we } were
	(If) You } were	(If) you } were
	(If) He } were	(If) they } were

Imperative: *Present:* be (thou or you), be (ye or you)

Infinitives:	{ <i>Present,</i> (to) be	Participles:
	{ <i>Perfect,</i> to have been	<i>Present:</i> being
Gerunds:	{ <i>Present,</i> being	<i>Past:</i> been
	{ <i>Perfect,</i> having been	<i>Present Perfect:</i> having been

Exercise 275.—1. Fill the blanks with the proper *present* indicative forms of *be*.

I — well.	We — well.	She — well.
Thou — well.	You — well.	One — well.
He — well.	They — well.	Some — well.

2. Fill the blanks with the proper *past* indicative forms of *be*.

I — absent.	We — absent.	The king — present.
You — absent.	They — absent.	The princes — present.
She — absent.	Roy — present.	Many — present.
She — absent.	Boys — present.	Thou — present.

3. Fill the blanks with present and past *subjunctive* forms of *be*. Use "if."

4. EMPHATIC VERB PHRASES.

529. "**Do**" as an **Auxiliary**.— Instead of the simple present or past "He tries," "I tried," "Try," we may say more emphatically, —

He does try,	I did try,	Do try,
They do try,	You did try,	

using the verb *do*, and the infinitive "try" as the object of *do*.

Here *do* seems to have lost its ordinary meaning, *perform*, and serves only as an auxiliary to make an *Emphatic* form of the verb *try*.

530. When we ask or deny, as in **interrogative** or **negative** sentences, these phrases are almost always used instead of the simple forms. Thus, we usually say, —

Does he try? **Did** I try? He **does** not try. I **did** not try. (Not "Tries he? Tried I? He tried not, etc.")

Exercise 276.— Change the following expressions to the **emphatic**, the **negative**, and the **interrogative** forms :—

1. They learn.
2. We make hats.
3. They settled the country.
4. The plan works well.
5. Their journey ended.
6. He had courage.
7. Time brings changes.
8. We drew the sword.

5. PROGRESSIVE VERB PHRASES.

531. "Be" as an Auxiliary. — To express what is customary or habitual, we use the simpler forms of the verb ; as, —

She paints, He studied law, They will preach ;

but to represent an action as *continuing* or actually *in progress*, we use still another form of phrase. Thus : —

She is painting. He was studying law. They will be preaching.

Here the verb *be* has for its complement not an ordinary adjective, but the imperfect or active participle of the verb, and the two together make what is called a *Progressive* phrase.

532. A Progressive verb phrase represents an action as continuing or in progress.

It is formed by using the active participle with the proper tense of the verb "be."

Exercise 277. — Change these verbs to progressive verb phrases : —

Goes ; went ; has gone ; will go ; had gone ; will have gone ; dye ; must go ; may rise ; lies ; lays ; can sit ; will wait ; walked ; could see ; drew ; shall fix ; come ; fought ; had done ; may have seen.

6. PASSIVE VERB PHRASES, OR VERBS IN THE PASSIVE VOICE.

Exercise 278. — 1. In each sentence tell the word that shows who or what *performs* the action. 2. Tell the word that shows who or what *receives* the action, or is affected by it. 3. Select each subject that represents the *actor*. 4. Select those subjects that name the *receiver* of the action. 5. What difference do you notice in the *meaning* of each two sentences? 6. In their *form*?

1. { The breeze *fills* the sails.
 { The sails **are filled** by the breeze.
2. { We *celebrated* the victory.
 { The victory **was celebrated** by us.
3. { Messengers *will carry* the news.
 { The news **will be carried** by messengers.
4. { The government *should protect* the Indians.
 { The Indians **should be protected** by the government.
5. { Congress *has enacted* a new tariff law.
 { A new tariff law **has been enacted** by Congress.

533. In our study of transitive verbs we have found that they represent some person or thing as *acting upon* some other person or thing. As —

The sergeant carries the flag.
 Dewey captured Manila.
 The angler has caught the trout.

In these sentences the subject names the *actor*, and the object names the thing *acted upon*.

534. Without changing the *meaning* of such sentences at all we may change their *form* by making the *receiver* of the action the *subject* of the verb, while the *actor* appears in a prepositional phrase. Thus : —

The flag was carried [by the sergeant].
 Manila was captured [by Dewey].
 The trout has been caught [by the angler].

535. When the subject of a transitive verb names the actor, the verb is said to be *active* or in the *active voice*, but when the subject names the *one acted upon* the verb is said to be *passive* or in the *passive voice*.

Let us see how a verb in the passive voice differs from one in the active voice.

536. We know that the perfect participle of transitive verbs may always have a passive meaning ; as, —

driven, spoken, hired;

and if we use this participle as an adjective complement with different tenses of the verb *be* ; as in —

I am driven, It was spoken, You will be hired, —

we form verb phrases which represent the subject not as *acting*, but as *acted upon*, and which are therefore called *Passive* verb phrases, and the verbs are in the *passive voice*.

537. A Transitive verb in the passive voice, — or a passive verb phrase, — is one that represents its subject as receiving the action.

It is formed by using a passive participle with any tense of the verb "be."

The active form brings the *actor* into prominence; the passive, the *receiver* of the action. The passive form is generally used when the actor cannot or need not be named. As, —

The watch was stolen. Lost opportunities cannot be regained.

538. In this way any kind of verb phrases, except the progressive, may be made passive. Thus: —

"I may see," or "I may be seen."

"They might have stopped," or "They might have been stopped."

And even progressive phrases are sometimes found in the passive form. As in —

The prisoner was being tried for theft.

The question is being very thoroughly discussed.

"The house is being built," may be awkward, but it is allowable and exact, and surely better than "in process of construction."

539. **Complements of Passive Phrases.** — Some transitive verbs, as we know, take both an object and an objective complement. When such verbs are used in the passive voice the object of the active form becomes the subject, while the objective complement remains and becomes the *subjective* complement of the passive verb phrase. Thus: —

Love makes labor (light) = Labor is made light [by love].

The porter found the safe (open) = The safe was found open [by the porter.]

They chose him (captain) = He was chosen captain [by them].

540. When transitive verbs that take both a direct and an indirect object are made passive, either object may become the subject of the passive verb phrase, while the other is retained as an object. It is called the *retained* object, either direct or indirect. Thus: —

He gave [me] money = { Money was given [me] [by him].
I was given money [by him].

I forgave [him] his fault = { His fault was forgiven [him] [by me].
He was forgiven his fault [by me].

541. A few intransitive verbs, that, in the active form, are followed by a *preposition and its object*, are sometimes made passive. In such cases the preposition, as an adverbial modifier, becomes almost a part of the verb, and its former object becomes the subject of the passive phrase. [See § 634.] Thus:—

No one **had thought of** this. This **had not been thought of**.
 Our friends **laughed at** us. We **were laughed at** by them.

Exercise 279.—Change each verb in these sentences into either the passive or the active form, without changing the meaning:—

1. The engine draws the train.
2. The story has been told by several writers.
3. England taxed the colonies unjustly.
4. Louisiana was sold by France in 1803.
5. Marco Polo tells us strange stories.
6. The Mississippi was discovered by De Soto in 1541.
7. The prudent never waste time nor money.
8. The mortgage will be foreclosed by the executor.
9. Fire has destroyed the poor man's house.
10. Gold is purchased for coinage by the government.
11. Every patriot will defend the flag.
12. Friendship should be strengthened by adversity.
13. Would he believe the truth?
14. Paris had been besieged by the Prussians in 1871.
15. Heaven is not mounted to on wings of dreams.
16. Somebody will probably attend to the matter.
17. Will any one interfere with his rights?
18. The sentinel was found asleep at his post.
19. The United States made Cuba independent of Spain.
20. Shall we not make the commodore an admiral?
21. I consider public office a public trust.
22. Andrew Carnegie gave the city a half-million dollars.
23. Has Webster been given a place in the Hall of Fame?

Conjugation of Progressive and Passive Verb Phrases.

542. We have seen that *progressive* verb phrases are formed by adding *active* participles, — *driving, going, fighting*, — to the various tenses of *be*, and that *passive* phrases are formed by adding *passive* participles, — *driven, gone, fought*, — to the same forms of *be*. The full conjugation of *be* has been given on page 241, and progressive and passive phrases can easily be formed by adding the proper participle. The forms, however, are given below without subjects, for these the student can readily supply.

Principal Parts: *Present*, drive. *Past*, drove. *Perfect Part.*, driven.

Indicative Mode.

Present:	<i>am, is, are driving — driven.</i>
Past:	<i>was, were, driving — driven.</i>
Future:	<i>shall, or will be driving — driven.</i>
Present Perfect:	<i>has or have been driving — driven.</i>
Past Perfect:	<i>had been driving — driven.</i>
Future Perfect:	<i>shall, or will have been driving — driven.</i>

Potential Phrases:

Present:	<i>may, can, must be driving — driven.</i>
Past:	<i>might, could, would, should be driving — driven.</i>
Present Perfect:	<i>may, can, must have been driving — driven.</i>
Past Perfect:	<i>might, could, would, should have been driving — driven.</i>

Subjunctive Mode.

Present:	<i>be driving — driven.</i>
Past:	<i>were driving — driven.</i>

Infinitives.

Simple:	<i>(to) be driving — driven.</i>
Perfect:	<i>to have been driving — driven.</i>

Gerunds.

Simple:	<i>being driving — driven.</i>
Perfect:	<i>having been driving — driven.</i>

Participles.

Pres. Perf. Passive:	<i>having been driven.</i>
Prog. Active:	<i>having been driving.</i>
Prog. Passive:	<i>being driven.</i>

543. Conjugation of Solemn Forms.— These forms are used in sacred writings and in prayer with the subject *Thou*. In a verb phrase the first auxiliary only has the personal ending. Forms in *eth* are used with a third-singular subject in the indicative present only.

The verb be, Indicative. . Thou art, wast or wert, hast been, hadst been, shalt or wilt be, mayst or mayest, or canst be, mightest, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be. **Subjunctive.** If thou wert.

Other verbs. Thou dost know. Thou doest well. Thou knowest, knewest, hath known. Thou lovest, lovedst, hast loved, etc.

He doth ask. He doeth. He knoweth, loveth.

Exercise 280.— 1. Arrange in columns (1) **potential phrases**; (2) **progressive phrases**; (3) **passive phrases**; (4) **emphatic phrases**; (5) **s-forms**; (6) **present perfect phrases**; (7) **past perfect phrases**.

Go; goes; went; have gone; has gone; will go; do go; did go; does go; are lost; are losing; was; were; were he; may be; may be seen; can be singing; must sew; could sew; sews; has done; has been done; have been doing; might be; could be heard.

Might be hearing; should write; should be written; should have been writing; is growing; was growing; can have been growing; would sign; had been; had brought; had been brought.

Stands; stood; stand; did stand; was standing; will come; shall be coming; will have lost; will be lost; has been lost; to be; is written; to be made; making; having made; being worn; to have been wearing; has had; had had; did do; does do; would have had.

2. Give the **composition** of each phrase; *i.e.*, tell of what verb forms it is composed. Thus:—

“Would have been broken” is made up of the past *would*, the infinitive *have*, the perfect participle *been*, and the passive participle *broken*.

Exercise 281.— Write the following-named forms of *bring*, *lay*, *tread*, *wear*, *obey*, *come*, *write*, *do*, *buy*, *have*:—

1. Present indicative progressive, third-singular. 2. Past indicative passive. 3. Future indicative. 4. Future indicative passive. 5. Present perfect in-

dicative progressive, third-singular. 6. Past perfect potential passive. 7. Present indicative emphatic. 8. Past potential passive. 9. Present perfect indicative passive. 10. Present indicative (with subject "he"). 11. Present subjunctive (with "he" for subject).

544. How to Parse a Verb. — A verb or verb phrase is parsed by telling its 1. *tense*; 2. *mode*; (3. *phrase-form*); 4. *kind*; 5. *principal parts*; (6. *number-form*, if peculiar); and 7. *subject*.

NOTE. — This order of statement, though not material, is a convenient one, since it presents the facts as they appear in the successive elements of a verb phrase.

545. Forms for Parsing. — [*To be varied at the option of the teacher.*]

1. [⁺[When] (my) ship comes [in]] I shall be rich.
2. He spoke [loud] [⁺[that they might hear him].
3. [⁺[After we had been drifting [three days]] (a) sail was seen.

comes is the *present indicative* of the *complete* verb "come, came, come"; *s-form* with the third-singular *subject* **ship**.

shall be is the *future indicative* of the *copulative* verb "be, was, been"; its *subject* is **I**.

spoke is the *past indicative* of the *complete* verb "speak, spoke, spoken"; its *subject* is **he**.

might hear is a *past potential** of the *transitive* verb "hear, heard, heard"; its *subject* is **they**.

had been drifting is the *past perfect indicative progressive* of the *complete* verb "drift, drifted, drifted"; its *subject* is **we**.

was seen is a *past indicative passive* verb phrase formed from the *transitive* verb "see, saw, seen"; **was** is used with the *third-singular* *subject* **sail**.

* Potential phrases have sometimes a subjunctive and sometimes an indicative meaning; but it is not expected that all learners will discriminate between the two uses. See Appendix.

Exercise 282. — Parse the verbs in these sentences.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Where shall you be ? | 19. Come ye in peace, or come ye in war ? |
| 2. It cannot be found. | 20. Ask, and it shall be given you. |
| 3. How busy you are. | 21. Could it not have been found sooner ? |
| 4. Go quickly to the rear. | 22. I wish I were sailing the seas |
| 5. Be careful how you speak. | 23. Have you had enough ? |
| 6. The sun might have risen. | 24. How do you do this morning ? |
| 7. No one has yet seen it. | 25. He had had the money for a week. |
| 8. Would he go if he were I ? | 26. I am expecting to see him soon. |
| 9. Were not the drums beating ? | 27. Take heed lest he fall. |
| 10. You should have gone at once. | 28. If he were going he would take it. |
| 11. The mill can never grind again with the water that is past. | 29. When he next doth ride abroad, May I be there to see. |
| 12. We might have been called. | 30. You could not have been listening, or you would have heard me. |
| 13. Nothing must be assumed. | 31. There never has been another such man. |
| 14. The train will have gone before he arrives. | 32. Might it not have been done ? |
| 15. Could he have fled alone ? | |
| 16. Is it rising now ? | |
| 17. Did he write at your bidding ? | |
| 18. Do not be discouraged by trifles. | |

Exercise 283. — If additional exercise is needed the verbs found in Exercises 85-88 may be parsed.

546.

VERBS : SUMMARY.

Kinds.

Complete:	{	Intransitive (not copulative).
		Most Passive Phrases.
Incomplete:	{	Copulative.
		Transitive in Active Voice.
		Passive Phrases with Subjective Complement (§ 539).
		Passive Phrases with retained object (§ 540).

Forms.

	TENSES.	MODES.	PHRASE-FORMS.	PRIN. PARTS.
Present	Present Perfect	Indicative	Potential	Present
Past	Past Perfect	Subjunctive	Emphatic	Past
Future	Future Perfect	Imperative	Progressive	Perf. Part.
			Passive	

Construction.**FORM FOR SUBJECT.**

(Common form) has for its subject —.

s-form

solemn (**eth**) form } with thlrđ-singular subject —.

solemn (**est**) form with second-singular subject **thou**.

E. DIRECTIONS FOR THE USE OF VERB FORMS.

547. Wrong forms of the verb are very common. It is a prominent word, inflected more than any other part of speech, and hence leads one who is careless to make many conspicuous blunders.

548. Some of the very worst mistakes are made by substituting one of the principal parts for another.

For example: Having as principal parts, *pres. do, past did, perf. part. done*, we should say in stating a past fact, "He **did** the work," not "He **done** the work"; but in making a present perfect phrase we should say, "He has **done** the work," not "He has **did** the work."

549. Principal Parts Confused. — I. *Do not use the perfect participle as a substitute for the past tense.*

II. *Never use the past tense instead of a perfect participle in making a verb phrase.*

Exercise 284. — Select the proper form of the verbs, and give the reason for your choice.

1. Who (did, done) it? 2. Soon it had (sank, sunk) to rise no more.
3. The pears were all (shook, shaken) off by the wind. 4. This lace was (wove, woven) in France. 5. He (ran, run) all the way. 6. They (come, came) in late yesterday. 7. He soon (began, began) to be weary. 8. Charles Jones (swum, swam) across the river. 9. I (saw, seen) that yours was wrong.
10. He has (risen, rose) from poverty to wealth. 11. Our club was never (beat, beaten) before. 12. If I had been (showed, shown), I should know how to do it. 13. She had (tore, torn) it off.

14. I (seen, saw) him yesterday. 15. You might have (chose, chosen) something better. 16. Our friends (come, came) last week. 17. You must do as you are (bid, bade, bidden). 18. Some (drank, drunk) too much. 19. What evil has (befallen, befell) them? 20. She may have (went, gone) to Europe. 21. Have you ever (sang, sung) this tune? 22. Have they (drank, drunk) it all? 23. Have they (broke, broken) out the roads yet?

Exercise 285. — Give the principal parts of the verb; tell which should be used, and why.

1. Have you never (*shrink*) from your duty? 2. She may have been (*smite*) down. 3. His signature was (*write*) indistinctly. 4. It cannot have been (*steal*). 5. You might have (*take*) more pains. 6. David (*sling*) the stone, and (*smite*) him on the forehead. 7. They have (*strive*) to do their best. 8. Intemperance has (*slay*) its thousands. 9. My directions were (*forget*). 10. The pond was (*freeze*) over. 11. Some one has (*break*) my pen.

550. Some verbs have somewhat similar forms that are liable to be confounded. Especial care must be taken in using them.

551. Verbs Confused. — *Do not use one verb for another of similar form but of different meaning.*

Exercise 286. — 1 Learn the principal parts of these verbs, and their meaning: —

PRESENT.	PAST.	ACTIVE PART.	PERFECT PART.
lie (rest)	lay (rested)	lying (resting)	lain (rested)
lay (place)	laid (placed)	laying (placing)	laid (placed)
sit (rest)	sat (rested)	sitting (resting)	sat (rested)
set (place)	set (placed)	setting (placing)	set (placed)

2. Fill the blanks with the appropriate form of *lie* or *lay*, and its meaning. Thus: —

“ I *laid* (or placed) it on the table, and there it *lies* (or rests). ”

1. Where did you — it? 2. How long has it — there? 3. At what wharf does your yacht —? 4. It — on the grass yesterday. 5. It has — there for years. 6. They have — the corner-stone. 7. He — in bed till nine o'clock. 8. She has been — there all day. 9. The ship — to during the storm. 10. A thousand miles of pipe have been —.

11. She now — sleeping quietly. 12. We — over two days in Montreal.
 13. — down, Bruno! 14. He — it carefully away in his safe, and there
 it has — ever since. 15. — it on the table, and let it — there.
 16. They have been — new tracks. 17. Has it been — there long?
 18. He was — by the brook. 19. The body — in state three days.
 20. The city — on the left bank.

3. Fill the following blanks with the appropriate form of *sit* or *set*, and its meaning: —

Come into the — -room. 2. The mother-bird is — in her nest. 3. We
 — out twelve elms last arbor-day. 4. Where did he — ? 5. I — it on
 the shelf, and there it — now. 6. Won't you — here? 7. He — mo-
 tionless for an hour. 8. I have been — in the arbor while you have been
 — out your plants. 9. The court will — in June. 10. Was he —
 there then ?

552. Improper Forms. — *Never use any improper verb forms ;*
 as, “drawed” for “drew” — [§ 89.]

Exercise 287. — 1. Select the proper form of the verb for each of
 these sentences: —

1. He has (*overdraw*) his account. 2. He (*throw*) his adversary yesterday.
 3. His will had been (*break*). 4. Have you (*heat*) the water? 5. Has the
 brook ever (*overflow*) its banks? 6. I (*know*) you would (*lay, lie*) down.
 7. When was the horse (*shoe*) last? 8. He (*ain't, isn't*) as wise as he appears.
 9. The moon has (*light*) us on our way. 10. Your coat doesn't (*set, sit, fit*)
 well.

2. Distinguish between (1) **born** and **borne**, (2) **durst** and **dared**, (3) **hung**
 and **hanged**, (4) **may** and **can**, (5) **learn** and **teach**, and use the correct form
 in the following blanks: —

1. He was — in Ohio. He was — to his grave by his friends. 2. The
 king — not sign the warrant. We — them to leap the brook. 3. Nathan
 Hale was — as a spy. Have the pictures been securely — ? 4. — I shut
 the window. — you discover the reason? 5. — me to sew. My mother
 — me long ago.

553. Shall or will. — In the conjugation of the future tenses
 on pages 239, 241 *shall* is used in the first person, and *will* in
 the second and third persons simply as auxiliaries to *predict*
 future action or condition. Thus we say, —

I shall return Monday.	We shall fail.
I shall grow old of course.	We shall all die.
You will lose your train.	You will injure yourselves.
You will succeed in time.	You will lose your way.
He will find the journey long.	They will be tired.
My friend will be disappointed.	Carriages will be furnished.

554. I. *Simply to foretell that something is going to happen use shall with "I," or "we," and will with other subjects.*

555. *Will* is used with *I* or *we*, and *shall* with other subjects, to *promise*, or to show the *intention* or *determination* of the speaker, who controls the action whoever may perform it. Thus, —

I will pay the bill promptly.	We will help you.
I will be obeyed.	We will refund the money.
You shall go.	You shall vacate the house at once.
He shall be detained.	They shall not escape.

The oft-quoted remark of the drowning Frenchman, "I *will* drown! I *will* drown! Nobody *shall* help me!" illustrates the distinction in the use of *shall* and *will*. The poor fellow unwittingly expressed his determination to drown, and warned off his rescuers, instead of saying that he was about to drown and that no one was about to help him.

556. II. *To promise, or to express a determination of the speaker, use will with "I" or "we," and shall with other subjects.*

Exercise 288. — Tell whether the auxiliary is used to **promise, to show determination, or simply to foretell**: —

1. I shall enter college next year. 2. I will have an education. 3. My friends will help me. 4. Nothing shall stand in my way. 5. I shall answer his letter to-morrow. 6. The letter shall be answered at once. 7. I will walk; no one shall carry me. 8. I shall walk; no one will carry me. 9. You shall go with me if you wish. 10. We will assist you at any time. 11. I shall be punished. He shall be punished. 12. Shall you attend the fair? Will you go with me? 13. I will call on you to-day, and I shall then say good-bye. 14. Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him. 15. It shall be as you will.

557. III. In questions use the same auxiliary that would be correctly used in the reply. Thus:—

If we wish to exact a *promise*, like “I will wait” or “We will go,” we ask, “**Will** you wait or go?” But if we wish one to predict a *future action* by saying, “I shall go,” we must ask, “**Shall** you go?”

EXCEPTION. — **Will** is never used in a question with “I” or “we” as subject. Thus we say, —

“**Shall** I find you there?” not “**Will** I,” etc.

“**Shall** we come early?” not “**Will** we,” etc.

558. **Should** and **would** follow the same rules as “*shall*” and “*will*.” Thus:—

I **should** not need your help, and, if I did, I **would** not ask it.

I asked him whether he **should** go or stay (“*Shall* you go or stay?”), and he said he **should** stay (“*I shall* stay”).

He said that he **would** go (“*I will* go”).

He feared lest he **should** fall (“*I shall* fall”).

Exercise 289.—Fill each blank with a form of **shall** or **will**, giving the rule that guides you.

1. We — expect to hear from you. 2. If I do not study, I — grow up in ignorance. 3. They — receive the money to-morrow. 4. I was afraid that I — lose my position. 5. We — be pleased to hear that he — soon return. 6. If you telegraph, we — come at once. 7. When — we call? When — you go with me? 8. I fear that we — have unpleasant weather. 9. Where — you be next week? 10. I — like to go to town, and — go if I could. 11. I — be delighted if you — call. 12. I — have been ill if I had gone. 13. — you do as he bids you? — you do what I ask? 14. — you have sold it for that price? 15. I — have asked for more time.

559. **Subjunctive forms** are peculiar only —

(1) In always omitting the endings *s*, *st*, *eth*, of the corresponding indicative;

(2) In that **BE** is used in place of *am*, *art*, *is*, or *are*, and **WERE** in place of *was*, *wast*, or *wert*.

560. Present Subjunctive forms are now used chiefly in clauses expressing a supposition or a condition to be decided in the future. As —

If he **ask** a pardon, shall you grant it?
If he **go**, he will not be missed.

In such clauses, indicative forms are also used by good writers and speakers. [See Appendix.]

561. Past Subjunctive forms must be used in clauses expressing a supposition or a wish which is contrary to the fact. As in —

If he **were** ready (but he is not), he could go.
I wish I **were** well (but I am not).

(a) Indicative forms must be used to express what is *assumed as a fact*. As in —

If he **intends** to go, he should go now.
Though he **is** far from well, he is industrious.
If he **was** poor, he was honest.

Exercise 290. — Fill the blank with what seems the appropriate form of the verb "be," and give the reason for your choice.

1. What would she say if she — asked? 2. I wish I — ten years younger. 3. If the book — in the library, you may take it. 4. If the book — in the library, you might take it. 5. O that it — possible! 6. If he — needy, we should help him. 7. Though he — needy, he will get no help. 8. If he — insane, his actions do not show it. 9. If I — to be defeated, I should still persevere. 10. It would be a great disgrace if he — to fail. 11. I will come to-morrow if the weather — fine. 12. I will call upon him if he — now at home. 13. Take care lest it — injured.

DIRECTIONS FOR THE USE OF THE S-FORM OF VERBS.

562. We have learned that the s-form of verbs is never used except in the present tenses of the indicative mode, with subjects that in meaning are of the third person and of the singular number.

563. General Rule. — *A third-singular subject, and no other, requires the s-form of the verb.*

It will be understood that this rule can apply only to the present indicative tenses.

564. Was. — *Use was with "I" or a third-singular subject, but never with "you" or any plural subject.*

Exercise 291. — **Choose the correct form** in the following sentences, and justify your choice. Thus : —

"He (don't, doesn't) try." The third-singular subject "he" requires *does*, the s-form of the verb *do*. Say "He *doesn't* try."

"There (has, have) never been many of that kind." "Many" is not a third-singular subject, hence the s-form *has* would be improper. The sentence should read, "There never *have* been many," etc. **RULE:** A third-singular subject, and *no other*, requires the s-form of the verb.

1. Neither of them (were, was) correct. 2. From that source (comes, come) all our troubles. 3. It (don't, doesn't) take long to cross the ocean. 4. (Was, were) you at the concert last night? 5. My scissors (needs, need) sharpening. 6. The memoranda (is, are) lost. 7. There (has, have) been many disappointments on this trip. 8. The fragrance of roses (fill, fills) the air. 9. Each of the states (have, has) two senators. 10. Either of those reasons (are, is) sufficient. 11. Harder times never (were, was) seen.

12. The six days' work (was, were) ended. 13. What (has, have) become of your friends? 14. The meaning of these words (are, is) easily found. 15. Which of these fractions (are, is) the larger? 16. Everybody (have, has) offered us congratulations. 17. There (is, are) a few more to be had. 18. There (has, have) been several lost on these rocks.

565. It is the meaning rather than the form of a subject that affects the form of the verb. For example, in the sentence —

The Three Clerks was written by Anthony Trollope,

the subject is singular in meaning, for it names a single book.

566. 1. Collective nouns are generally singular in meaning. Thus : —

The **jury** renders its verdict. Our **regiment** loses its colonel.

Here we refer to the collection as a *whole* or *unit*, and the s-form of the verb is required.

2. Sometimes, however, we refer to actions of the *individuals* in the collection. Thus:—

The jury **have** returned to **their** homes.
The regiment **hold** different opinions of him.

Here the meaning is plural, and the **s**-form of the verb would be wrong.

567. Collective Subjects require the s-form of the verb only in referring to the collection as a unit.

Exercise 292.—Tell which form of the verb should be used here, and give your reason:—

1. The army (was, were) nearly annihilated. 2. The band (has, have) brought (its, their) instruments. 3. (Is, are) your family well? 4. The committee (was, were) unanimous in the choice. 5. The fleet (was, were) separated. 6. The whole herd ran into the sea and (was, were) drowned. 7. Our club (hold, holds) (its, their) meetings every month. 8. (Have, has) the company broken up? 9. A large number (was, were) dissatisfied. 10. The number present (were, was) large. 11. The United States (is, are) a powerful nation.

CONNECTED SUBJECTS.

568. Singular expressions joined by **and** are generally taken together as a plural subject. Thus:—

He and I are going. *Industry and perseverance win* success.
Making laws and enforcing them are very different.

569. Subjects joined by “**and**.” — Use the **s**-form of the verb with singular subjects connected by **and** — only

- (1) *When they name the same person or thing; or*
- (2) *When they are preceded by each, every, many a, or no.*

For example—

- (1) *My friend and helper has* deserted me.
- (1) *A wheel and axle transmits* the power.
- (2) *Each lady and gentleman has* received a copy.
- (2) *Every city and town was* visited.

570. Subjects joined by OR or NOR. Use the *s*-form of the verb with third-singular subjects connected by *or* or *nor*. Thus:—

One *or* the other **visits** London annually.
Neither money *nor* influence **was** needed.

Exercise 293.—Select the proper form of the verb, and justify your selection. Thus:—

“Neither hope nor courage *remains*.” The *s*-form is here required, for the subject consists of two singular nouns, “hope” and “courage,” which are joined by *nor*, and hence are to be taken separately.

“Both hope and courage *are* needed.” The *s*-form of the verb would be wrong, for the two nouns “hope” and “courage” joined by *and* make a plural subject.

“Every boy and girl *has* recited.” The connected nouns “boy” and “girl” make a third-singular subject, for they are preceded by the adjective *every*, and so are to be taken separately. Hence the *s*-form of the verb is required.

1. In every muscle there (is, are) strength and vigor.
2. Every beggar and spendthrift (receive, receives) his aid.
3. Neither father nor mother (was, were) living.
4. Every word and even every thought (is, are) known.
5. Each day and hour (bring, brings) (its, their) duties.
6. The rise and fall of the tide (are, is) to be explained.
7. The butcher and the baker (has, have) sent in (his, their) (bill or bills).
8. There (is, are) fighting and bloodshed on the frontier.
9. A thousand dollars (are, is) too much to pay.
10. There (were, was) neither anger nor impatience in his tone.
11. To seem and to be (is, are) not always the same.
12. A beautiful poem or picture (has, have) a refining influence.
13. Whether to advance or to retreat (were, was) the question.
14. No pains and no expense (have, has) been spared.
15. Each hour, dark fraud or open rapine or protected murder (cry, cries) out against them.
16. Every leaf and flower (has, have) faded.
17. His subject and mine (was, were) the same.
18. There (sleeps, sleep) the soldier, statesman, and martyr.
19. Wave after wave (come, comes) rolling in.
20. Neither oil nor alcohol (are, is) as heavy as water.

571. *When subjects connected by or or nor differ in person or number, the one nearest the verb generally controls its form.* Thus :—

Neither she nor **I am** invited. Either you or **he knows** it.

Are you or he going? Neither he nor his **children were** saved.

Expressions like these are awkward, and should generally be avoided.
Thus :

She is not invited, nor am I.

572. *Of two subjects connected by as well as the first one controls the form of the verb that is expressed, and the second that of a verb understood.*

Thus :—

The **captain**, as well as the crew, **was** lost.

The **crew**, as well as the captain, **were** sick.

573. *Of two subjects, one affirmative and the other negative, the affirmative one controls the form of the verb expressed, and the negative one that of a verb understood.* Thus :—

Not I but **he is** the one to go. Not he but **I am** going. The **warriors**, but not the chief, **were** present. Not only this habit, but all similar ones, are pernicious.

574. *As a relative pronoun has no form for number or person, the sense of the antecedent controls the form of the verb.* Thus :—

“**I that speak** unto you am he.” “O **Thou who changest** not !”

“Our **Father who art** in heaven.”

Exercise 294.—Select the proper form of the verb, and give the rule that guides you.

1. Equity, as well as justice, (demand, demands) it.
2. One or more persons (was, were) injured.
3. His painting was one of the best that (was, were) exhibited.
4. Not the causes, but the result, (were, was) stated.
5. You or he (are, is) to go.
6. Either he or I (is, am) to go.
7. No sound but that of their own voices (were, was) heard.
8. The army (were, was) led into the defile.
9. Each plant and tree (produce, produces) others of (its, their) kind.
10. This man with his sons (were, was) founders of a nation.
11. He is one of the wisest men that (has, have) ever lived.
12. He comes; nor want nor cold his course delay.
13. His wealth and not his talents attract attention.
14. I would like to know whose book this is.

CHAPTER XX.

INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

[Review §§ 479-488.]

I. INFINITIVES.

575. **Infinitives** are in their nature partly nouns. First, being names (of actions, etc.), they are *nouns*, and they have the uses of nouns. Secondly, though they cannot assert, they are like verbs in meaning, and they take the same modifiers or complements. Thus in —

I wish **to drive** my horse slowly,

to drive, like a noun, is the object of "wish"; and, like a verb, it expresses action, has an object, "horse," and is modified by an adverb, "slowly."

576. Nearly every verb has two simple infinitives; as, —

(to) **drive, driving**; (to) **run, running**;

named from their forms the *Root infinitive* and the *Infinitive in ing*. [Foot-note, page 223.]

We shall speak of the root-infinitive briefly as the *infinitive*, and in speaking of the infinitive in *ing* we shall use the briefer word, *gerund*.

577. As verb phrases are used instead of inflected forms, so, too, *infinitive phrases* are used instead of the simple forms to express certain changes of meaning.

Thus, like the infinitive, we have: —

	SIMPLE FORMS.	PERFECT FORMS.
	to drive	to have driven
<i>Progressive</i> :	to be driving	to have been driving
<i>Passive</i> :	to be driven	to have been driven

and like the gerund we have :—

	SIMPLE FORMS.	PERFECT FORMS.
	driving	having driven
<i>Progressive</i> :	(being driving)*	having been driving
<i>Passive</i> :	(being driven)†	having been driven

[For the use of all these forms as nouns, see § 583.]

578. *To* was formerly used with the infinitive to express various relations, but it has lost its prepositional character, and now generally means nothing of itself, and serves only as a *sign* that the following word is an infinitive.

B. USES OR CONSTRUCTIONS.

579. I. Either the infinitive or the gerund may be used as (1) *Subject* or (2) *Subjective Complement*; as, —

To hesitate now is *to be lost*. *Making* promises is not *keeping* them. *To have given* freely is *to be asked* for more. His *having* once *been crowned* will make him noble.

(a) An infinitive may be used as the *real subject* of a verb to explain the anticipative subject *it* (§ 400); as, —

It is dangerous *to trifle* with temptation.

580. 3. Either the infinitive or the gerund may be the *Object* of a verb; as, —

I enjoy *swimming*. I like *to swim*. I will *swim*.
She prefers *sitting* quietly. She prefers *to sit* quietly.

581. Sometimes the infinitive or the gerund is used as the object of a verb that has also an *indirect* object. Thus :—

He taught [all his pupils] to sing, like—

He taught singing [to all his pupils];

* A rare form, as in "punished for *being out driving*."

† Also a rare form. [See § 538.]

in which one object names the *persons* who were taught, and the other the *thing* that was taught to them. Either object may be used as subject in the passive form [§ 540]; as, —

All his pupils were taught to sing, or —

To sing was taught [to all his pupils].

582. After some verbs the infinitive is used as complement without the superfluous "to." [Compare § 587.]

(1) Sometimes after **dare** and **need**. Thus :—

She **dared to meet** them all. They **dared not look** up.

It **needs to be repaired**. You **need not go**.

(2) After **had** (a subjunctive of **have**) with the adjective expressions **as lief, rather, better, best**. Thus, in the sentences, —

I **had as lief die**, I **had rather go**,

the meaning is, "I should hold it as desirable or more desirable *to die, to go*."

"**You had better go**" is copied from this expression, but the meaning of "had" is perverted. Such forms are allowable.

583. 4. Either the infinitive or the gerund may be the *Object of a preposition*. Thus :—

We are weary *with watching* those men. *From having been* king he came at last *to being supported* by charity. They were rewarded *for never having been captured*. The receiver was accused *of having been taking* bribes. We missed the performance *by being out walking*.

(a) The infinitive with "to" is now used only after the prepositions **about, but, except, and save**. Thus :—

The leader *was about to drive off* = *about driving off*.

I am *about to go* = *about going*.

He could do anything *but make* money; that is, —

He understood everything *but making* money.

They will do anything for religion *except live* for it.

Exercise 295. — **Analyze** these sentences, and **parse the infinitives and gerunds**.

1. To be good is to be happy. 2. It is impossible not to grow old.
3. Reading by twilight may injure the sight. 4. It is always best to tell the truth. 5. It was discouraging not to have been kindly received. 6. Seeming

good is not being good. 7. Who would wish to be forgotten? 8. They refused to release the prisoner. 9. I have tried to do justice to everybody. 10. He dislikes being falsely accused. 11. The firm expects to be moving out to-morrow. 12. Do you regret having done no more? 13. We can improve by imitating good examples. 14. They know nothing about its having been written. 15. The dog did everything but speak to him. 16. He promised me to go at once. 17. They dare not accuse him of dishonesty. 18. You need not tell that story again.

584. 5. The infinitive with *to* may be used *Adjectively* like a prepositional phrase. Thus:—

Wood **to burn** (for burning). Horses **to let** (for letting).
 (The) question (to be decided) is very difficult.

(a) It is also often used as a predicate adjective; as in,—

Such conduct is **to be despised** (is *despicable*).
 He appears **to have lost his mind** (appears *insane*).

585. 6. The infinitive with *to*, like a prepositional phrase, may be used *Adverbially* to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, by showing the *purpose, cause, respect in which*, etc. Thus:—

We *need* the money **to pay** (for paying) the help.
 They are *slow* **to depart** (in departing).
 It is ripe *enough* **to eat** (for eating).

NOTE. — When used adjectively or adverbially the *infinitive* may generally be replaced by *for* (*in, at, of, etc.*) and *the gerund*. As in,—

good **to drink** (*for drinking*); forced **to go** (*into going*);
 regret **to hear** (*at hearing*); failed **to come** (*of coming*).

586. 7. The infinitive of course cannot be used to make a direct assertion. It is used, however, as an *Indirect Predicate* in expressions that are nearly equivalent to objective noun clauses. Thus in—

I believed the story to be false

the object of "believed" is obviously not *story*, but the whole expression, *the story to be false*, as if I had said, *I believed that the story was false*. *Story*, the apparent object of the transitive verb, is treated as the subject of the infinitive *to be*, used as an *indirect predicate*. [See § 351.] Other examples are —

We believed **it to be true** = We believed *that it was true*.
 I expected **him to come** = I expected *that he would come*.
 He asked **me to stay** = He asked *that I should stay*.
 Permit **us to go** = Permit *that we should go*.
 I thought **him to be rich** = I thought *that he was rich*.

[For "I thought him rich," "I thought him a man of means," see § 443. For "I knew it to be him," see § 420.]

The application of the word *clause* is sometimes extended to include these expressions. They may be called *infinitive clauses*.

NOTE. — This construction is most common after verbs meaning *think, perceive, declare, command, permit*, and the like, taking the place of an indirect quotation. But the infinitive after these verbs may sometimes be explained in other ways.

587. (a) After **bid, let, make, see, hear, feel, and have** an infinitive is used as indirect predicate without **to** (compare § 582). As in, —

Bid { him remain . { <i>that he should remain</i> .	Let { us go . { <i>that we should go</i> .
He made { the top spin . { <i>that the top should spin</i> .	I saw { her go . { <i>that she went</i> .
We felt { the house shake . { <i>that the house shook</i> .	Hear the bells ring . Have him copy this.

588. The infinitive as indirect predicate is sometimes used with the **object of a preposition**. Thus: —

He gave orders *for me to go*. It is time *for the work to be done*.

589. The infinitive is sometimes used in elliptical constructions. Thus: —

To tell the truth, I had quite forgotten you; instead of —
 I must say, in order to tell the truth, etc.

Exercise 296.—**Analyze** the following sentences, and **parse** the infinitives. Suggest an equivalent clause when possible.

1. They declared the child to be dying. 2. I imagined him to be listening. 3. I wished him to succeed. 4. We felt the ground sink. 5. Allow the goods to be sent at once. 6. He has known them to remain until fall. 7. The law requires them to work but ten hours. 8. The jury thought him to be guilty of the crime. 9. I found my friend to have been dead a month. 10. All men consider Washington to have been a patriot. 11. I expected him to go at once. 12. No one believed him to be so cruel. 13. To speak plainly, we held it to be an outrage. 14. I suppose it to have been him. 15. We have ordered the house to be vacated immediately. 16. They forbade us to enter. 17. We shall have them go at once. 18. They made the welkin ring with their hurrahs.

590. The Gerund sometimes loses all its verbal uses, takes adjectives instead of adverbs as modifiers, and becomes merely an *abstract noun* (§ 289]. Thus:—

<i>Gerund.</i>	Taking human life	}	is homicide.
<i>Abstract Noun.</i>	The taking of human life		
<i>Gerund.</i>	Walking rapidly	}	is healthful exercise.
<i>Abstract Noun.</i>	Rapid walking		

591.**SUMMARY: FORMS FOR PARSING.****FORMS OR KINDS.**

is a	{	Simple	}	Infinitive ; (or from)	of	{	Com.	}	Verb	{					
		Simple {									Pro.	Gerund	the	Tran.	
		Pass.									Perfect				Cop.
		Perfect {										Pro.	Pass.		

CONSTRUCTIONS.

1. **Subject** of the verb——.
 - (a) Explanatory of the anticipative subject **it**.
2. **Subjective complement** of the verb——.
3. **Object** of the *verb*——.
4. **Object** of the *preposition*——.

5. Used **adjectively** { to modify the noun —.
 } as subjective complement of the verb —.
6. Used **adverbially** to modify the { verb —.
 } adjective —.
 } adverb —.
7. Used as **indirect predicate** with its subject —.

Exercise 297. — Analyze the following sentences, parse the infinitives and gerunds, and explain how each is modified : —

1. Strive to keep your appointments. 2. I have but a few more words to say. 3. Cease to do evil; learn to do well. 4. The mere fact of his father's paying the debt is no proof of its being a proper expenditure. 5. It was no easy task to bridge the chasm. 6. To profess and to possess are very different. 7. A grove near by seemed to invite us to rest. 8. Let us prevent his anger by sacrificing ourselves. 9. The law is made to protect the innocent by punishing the guilty. 10. By observing truth we shall secure the respect of others. 11. He saw a star fall from heaven and vanish in utter darkness.

12. Shall you have time to come to bid us farewell? 13. Those only are fit to rule who have learned to obey. 14. Men love to be adored, but hate to be reproved. 15. I have an engagement which prevents my staying longer with you. 16. Their gratitude made them proclaim his goodness. 17. The atrocious crime of being a young man, I shall attempt neither to palliate nor deny. 18. Never leave it to do to-morrow if it ought to be done to-day. 19. I love to note the break of spring that is to clothe the ground. 20. Buying goods on credit has caused him to fail. 21. I saw them come, but did not hear them go. 22. To live soberly and righteously is to be his motto.

23. I dare do all that may become a man;
 Who dares do more is none.
24. None knew thee but to love thee.
25. Let not Ambition mock their useful toil.
26. He, glad to hide his tell-tale cheek,
 Hied back that glove of mail to seek.
27. Look in his face to meet thy neighbor's soul,
 Not on his garments to detect a hole.
28. Sir Launfal flashed forth in his unscarred mail
 To seek in all lands for the holy grail.
29. Oft has it been my lot to mark
 A proud, conceited, talking spark.

30. There is never a blade or a leaf too mean
To be some happy creature's palace.

31. And fools who came to scoff remained to pray.

32. The very leaves seem to sing on the trees.

33. To be graduated with a college diploma without having entered into the true spirit of college life by bearing an active part in its manifold and stimulating experiences, is to have failed of securing the best results of the course.

DIRECTIONS FOR THE USE OF INFINITIVES.

592. *A modifier should not be used between "to" and the rest of the infinitive.*

Say "They meant never *to return*," not "They meant *to never return*."

593. What is called the "split infinitive" is used to some extent by reputable writers and speakers, but only when there appears to be a decided gain in clearness or force.

594. *Avoid using "to" alone in place of an infinitive.*

Say "He has broken his word and is likely *to break* it again," or "is likely to do so again," not "— and is likely *to* again."

"Do as I told you," not "Do as I told you *to*."

595. *Avoid the use of "and" for "to."*

Say "Come *to* see me," not "Come *and* see me"; "Try *to* do your best," not "Try *and* do your best."

596. *Do not use a perfect infinitive after a past tense when the simple form would express the meaning.*

Say "I intended *to go*," not "*to have gone*."

"We hoped *to be present*," not "*to have been present*."

Exercise 298. — Point out the error in each of these sentences, and tell what rule is violated : —

1. We ought to carefully avoid errors.
2. I have done everything that you told me to.
3. We shall try and call upon you next week.
4. He was not obliged to have gone with me.
5. I ought to at least apologize, but I do not mean to.

II. PARTICIPLES.

597. **Participles** are in part adjectives, for they modify nouns and pronouns ; and they are in part verbs, for they take the same modifiers or complements. They do not assert that a thing does or is so and so, but they describe it so as to imply as much. Thus, in the sentence —

I met a man **driving** his sheep to market,

driving, like an adjective, modifies "man," and, like a verb, takes an object, "sheep." It describes the man as acting, without asserting anything of him.

598. Nearly every verb has two simple participles, named from their meaning —

(1) The Present, Imperfect, or *Active* participle ; as, —

driving, spinning, seeing, walking, sleeping ; and —

(2) The Past, Perfect, or *Passive* participle ; as, —

driven, spun, seen, walked, slept.

599. In place of inflected forms we have four *participle phrases*, — one formed with the *imperfect* participle, and three with the *perfect*. Thus : —

ACTIVE.

PASSIVE.

Imperfect : **driving.**

Perfect : **driven.**

Pres. Perf. : **having driven.**

Pres. Perf. : **having been driven.**

Progressive : **having been driving.**

Progressive : **being driven.**

600. The *Present* participle always ends in *ing*. It commonly represents an action or a condition as continuing or *imperfect*, and it is almost always *active* ; that is, it refers to the *actor*. Thus : —

Vessels **carrying** coal are constantly **arriving**.

601. The *Past* participle commonly ends in *en, ed, d, or t* (§ 486), and is generally *perfect*, representing an action or a

condition as completed. When used alone it is almost always *passive*; that is, it refers, not to the actor, but to *what is acted upon*. Thus: —

The army, **beaten** but not **vanquished**, slowly fell back.

USES, OR CONSTRUCTIONS.

602. I. The simple participles may be used as *Subjective Complements*. Thus: —

The flowers are **gone**. It seems **bewildering**. Night came **stealing** on. The place lay **deserted** for years.

(a) Used in this way, the participle often has some adverbial meaning, as in the last two examples.

(b) A participle may be used as an *objective complement*. Thus: —

Send the ball **rolling**. We shall keep you **occupied**.

603. II. Any participle may be added to a noun or a pronoun *appositively*. In such cases the idea would be more fully expressed, —

(1) *By an adjective-clause*; (2) *By an adverb-clause*; (3) *By an independent statement*; as —

1. The books { **bought** for the library
that were bought for the library } are burned.
2. The dog went home { **having lost** his master.
because he had lost his master.
3. { **Reaching** for the bell-rope,
I reached for the bell-rope, and } I pulled it vigorously.

604. III. Any participle may be used with a noun or a pronoun in the *Absolute construction* (§ 349), the two together having the force of an adverb-clause. Thus: —

[**Quiet having been restored**], (the) speaker continued.

[When quiet had been restored], (the) speaker continued.

605. SUMMARY: FORMS FOR PARSING.

KINDS OR FORMS.

— is an	{	Imperfect	}	(Active.)	}	Part. ; (or from)	of the	{	Com.	}	Verb	{	—
		Present Perf.							Tran.				—
		Progressive.							Cop.				—
		Perfect											
an	{	Present Perf.	}	(Passive)	}								
		Progressive.											

CONSTRUCTIONS.

1. **Modifies** the noun (or pronoun) —
2. **Complement** of the verb — referring to —.
3. Used **absolutely** with the noun (or pronoun) —.

Exercise 299. — **Analyze** these sentences, and **parse** the participles. Change each participle-phrase to a clause when possible.

1. The melancholy days are come. 2. I kept him working. 3. This noise is very confusing. 4. The mountain streams went babbling by. 5. Is not the breeze from the hills refreshing? 6. The fire was set burning by sparks from the engine. 7. The news set all the bells ringing. 8. We found some old planks badly rotted by the weather. 9. The sun goes down, lengthening the shadows.

10. What wonder is it that the girl, lost in such dreamy fancies, did not hear you? 11. Even the special train dispatched at two did not arrive till four. 12. Having often seen him passing, I reasoned that the nest was near. 13. She brought some images stolen from the tombs by Arabs. 14. Once possessed of that fortune, he would wish it to be greater. 15. Punished or unpunished, he will never be conquered. 16. Ten times conquered, still you may be victor.

17. The rain having ceased to fall, we look for a rainbow. 18. The weather permitting, we shall set out to-morrow. 19. And the rocks now slipping from beneath their feet, they still refused to flee. 20. He had everything to fear from poisonous plants, the very sight of dogwood being dangerous. 21. She sat by the window, the sash raised, and the wind blowing a gale. 22. The army was in Belgium, the fleet being in the Channel, as we have said.

Exercise 300. — **Analyze** the following sentences, and **parse** the participles and infinitives. Expand participle phrases to clauses, and tell how the clauses affect the meaning of the main statement.

1. Strive to keep your appointments. 2. I have but a few more words to say. 3. Cease to do evil; learn to do well. 4. The mere fact of his father's

paying the debt is no proof of its being a proper expenditure. 5. It was no easy task to bridge the chasm. 6. To profess and to possess are very different. 7. Evil falls on him who goes to seek it. Gone are the birds that were our summer guests.

9. His great work having been well done, he rests at last. 10. He that is good at making excuses is seldom good for anything else. Let him learn the luxury of doing good. 11. Let us prevent his anger by sacrificing ourselves. 12. The law is made to protect the innocent by punishing the guilty. 13. By observing truth we shall secure the respect of others. 14. He saw a star fall from heaven and vanish in utter darkness. 15. It is well to think well; it is divine to act well.

16. England owes her liberties to her having been conquered by the Norman. 17. Eyes raised towards heaven are always beautiful, whatever they may be. 18. Selfishness is making one's self the most important personage in the world. Happiness shared is perfected. 19. Silently to persevere in one's duty is the best answer to calumny. 20. You find yourself refreshed by the presence of cheerful people. Why not make an earnest effort to confer that pleasure on others?

21. Freedom's battle, once begun,
Bequeathed from bleeding sire to son,
Though baffled oft, is ever won.

22. Rest is not quitting the busy career;
Rest is the fitting of self to its sphere.
'Tis loving and serving the highest and best;
'Tis onwards! unswerving, and that is true rest.

23. Flashed all their sabres bare,
Flashed as they turned in air,
Sabring the gunners there,
Charging an army, while
All the world wondered.
Plunged in the battery smoke,
Right through the line they broke;
Cossack and Russian
Reeled from the sabre-stroke —
Shattered and sundered.
Then they rode back, but not —
Not the six hundred.

CHAPTER XXI.

ADVERBS.

[Review §§ 169-175.]

A. KINDS.

606. As to Meaning. — There are many adverbs, and they modify in many different ways; yet they may all be divided, according to their *meaning*, into six principal classes: —

- | | |
|------------------------------|---|
| 1. Adverbs of Time. | As, <i>now, then, always, never, next, last.</i> |
| 2. Adverbs of Place. | As, <i>here, there, down, hence, above.</i> |
| 3. Adverbs of Manner. | As, <i>well, ill, thus, so, slowly, wisely, freely.</i> |
| 4. Adverbs of Degree. | As, <i>much, very, almost, too, scarcely, quite.</i> |
| 5. Adverbs of Cause. | As, <i>accordingly, hence, therefore, wherefore.</i> |
| 6. Adverbs of Number. | As, <i>first, next, once, thirdly.</i> |

607. As to Use. — With respect to their *use*, adverbs may be classified as *Simple* when they merely modify, and as *Conjunctive* when they also connect.

Exercise 301. — 1. What is a clause? 2. What kinds of clauses have you studied? 3. What is an adjective clause? 4. What is a noun clause? 5. What is a conjunctive pronoun? 6. A relative pronoun? 7. Give the meaning of *when, where, whence, whither, why, how*, in the form of a phrase.

8. Point out the adjective clauses in the following expressions, and tell what each modifies: —

1. The place on which they stood —
2. The time at which they started —
3. The town from which they came —
4. The land to which they went —
5. The reason for which they fled —

9. What does each prepositional phrase modify? 10. Substitute a single word for each phrase. 11. What does the substituted word modify? 12. To what part of speech does it therefore belong?

608. From the preceding Exercise we see that in *adjective clauses* certain adverbs may be used as the equivalent of a phrase made with a conjunctive pronoun and a preposition. Thus:—

This is the house **where** (in which) I was born.

Here, as we know, "which" would connect the clause to *house*, and "in which" would modify *was born* like an adverb; so its equivalent **where** does this double duty of modifying and connecting.

609. Adverbs like *when, where, whence, whither, why, how*, that both modify a verb and at the same time connect a clause, are called *Conjunctive* adverbs.

So with *wherewith, whereon, whereby*, and other compounds of *where* and a preposition.

(a) Conjunctive adverbs used in adjective clauses may be called **relative** adverbs.

Exercise 302.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. Do you know who it is? | 4. Tell me what he wants. |
| 2. Do you know where it is? | 5. Tell me when he came. |
| 3. Do you know why he went? | 6. Tell me whence he came. |

1. In the first three sentences, what is the object of "do know"? 2. In the last three sentences, what is the object of "tell"? 3. What kind of clauses may be used as objects? 4. Parse "who" and "what." 5. What two uses has each? 6. How are the other noun clauses connected to the rest of the sentence? 7. To what part of speech do *where, why, when, whence*, belong? 8. What do they modify? 9. What have you learned to call such words when they also serve to connect?

610. From the foregoing illustrations we see that *noun clauses* also may be joined to the rest of the sentence by conjunctive adverbs. Thus:—

Show me **how** (= in what way) *the problem is solved*.

Here *how* is a conjunctive adverb; for it takes the place both of the conjunctive adjective "what" and of the phrase "in what way," which modifies *is solved* like an adverb.

Exercise 303.

- | | | | |
|------|-------------------------------|------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. { | Go early. | 2. { | He died here. |
| | Go at dawn. | | He died at his birthplace. |
| | Go [when] <u>day breaks</u> . | | He died [where] <u>he was born</u> . |

1. In the first group of sentences what tell *when* one is "to go"? 2. What kind of modifiers answers the question "when"? 3. Which of the adverb modifiers in the first group is a clause? Why? 4. In the second group what answers the question "Where did he die?" 5. What kind of modifiers tells *where*? 6. Which modifier in the second group is a clause? Analyze it. 7. Like what part of speech is it used? 8. What then will you call it?

611. The preceding Exercise shows us that a clause may do the work of an *adverb* as well as that of an adjective or a noun, by showing *when, where, why*, and so on. Thus:—

Go **whenever** (= at whatever time) *he calls*.

Stand still **wherever** (= in whatever place) *you are*.

Fight **as** (= in what way) *a hero fights*.

These clauses, like adverbs, show *when, where, and how* one is "to go," "to stand," or "to fight," and are therefore called *Adverb clauses*.

They are joined to the verb of the sentence either by conjunctive adverbs or simply by conjunctions.

612. An Adverb clause is one used like an adverb.

613. A Conjunctive adverb is one that modifies some word in a dependent clause and connects the clause to the rest of the sentence.

614. A Simple Adverb is one that modifies without connecting.

Exercise 304. — 1. Select the clauses, and tell their kind.

2. Point out the adverbs, tell their kind and what they modify.

1. When does the moon change? 2. Can you tell wherein they differ?

3. Who knows whence he came? 4. Where there is a will there is a way. 5. When the wine is in, the wit is out. 6. I know a bank where the wild thyme grows. 7. Whither I go ye know not. 8. Come as the waves come when navies are stranded. 9. Thou canst not tell whence it cometh nor whither it goeth. 10. He works where the sun never shines. 11. Can you tell why the tides rise and fall? 12. They are found in lands where frost is unknown. 13. How can the stream be turned? 14. Whither thou goest I will go, and where thou lodgest I will lodge. 15. When the pyramids were built is uncertain. 16. I must know when he goes, where he goes, and how he goes. 17. This is the place where Franklin was born.

615. Interrogative Adverbs. — The adverbs *how, when, where, why, whither, whence*, when used to introduce a question, either *direct* or *indirect*, may be called *interrogative* adverbs. As in—

How is it done? **When** did it happen? **Whence** came he?
I wonder *whether* he will come. He asked *where* he should find the book.

616. Modal Adverbs. — Certain adverbs, like **not, surely, certainly, perhaps, indeed**, etc., are sometimes used to show that a statement is made in a positive or negative or doubtful way. Thus:—

Surely you will not leave me. **Perhaps** he knows no better.

When so used they may be called *modal* adverbs.

617. Responsives. — The words **yes, yea, no, nay**, used as responses to questions, were once used like adverbs. We may call them *responsives*; but, like interjections, they do not properly belong to the parts of speech, being used now in the place of entire sentences. Thus:—“Are you coming?” “**Yes**”; (that is, “I am coming”).

618. Phrase Adverbs. — Some little phrases, generally used as adverbs, cannot well be separated, and may be called *phrase adverbs*. Among them are the following:—

At length; at last; at all; at once; as yet; by far; for good; at least; in general; in vain; in short; of old; of late; from below; etc.

619. There. — The adverb *there* is frequently used without much of its original meaning to introduce a sentence in which the verb comes before its subject. When so used it may be called an *expletive*. Thus:—

There were a thousand there.

B. INFLECTION AND USES.

620. Comparison.— Adverbs have, in general, no change of form. A few, however, are *compared* like adjectives. Thus:—

soon, **sooner**, **soonest**; often, **oftener**, **oftenest**.

(a) The adverbs *ill, far, little, much, near, well*, are compared irregularly like the adjectives of the same form, [See § 436.]

621. Many adverbs that are not inflected may have a comparative or superlative meaning added by the use of *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least*. As,—

quickly, *more* quickly, *most* quickly; *less* quickly, *least* quickly.

622. An adverb may modify not only a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, but also an infinitive, a participle, a preposition, a phrase, a clause, or even an entire sentence, as we have seen in § 616.

623. Parsing Adverbs.— To parse an adverb we have only to tell (1) its *kind*, and (2) *what it modifies*; the *form* (3) need be mentioned only when comparative or superlative.

EXAMPLE. We work [more cheerfully] [[when] we are [well] paid].

more is a *simple* adverb in the *comparative* degree; *used* to modify the adverb **cheerfully**.

cheerfully is a *simple* adverb modifying the verb **work**.

when is a *conjunctive* adverb modifying the verb **are paid**.

Exercise 305.— Point out the adverbs, and show exactly **what each modifies**.

1. Springing lightly into his saddle, he rode rapidly away. 2. It is lawful to do well on the sabbath day. 3. They live just beyond the mill. 4. He sailed nearly round the world. 5. How quickly night comes on! 6. Do precisely as you are bidden. 7. The paths of glory lead but to the grave. 8. Assuredly he cannot be mistaken. 9. Perhaps you will have no other opportunity. 10. The tunnel extends almost through the mountain.

SUMMARY : ADVERBS.

Kinds distinguished according to —

Use	{	Simple	{	Interrogative {	Direct.	Meaning	{	Indirect.	Time.
		Modal.	Demonstrative.	Responsive.	Place.				
		<i>Conjunctive</i> including Relative.							Manner.
		Phrase.							Degree.
									Cause.
									Number.
Forms	{	Positive.	Used to modify	{	Verbs, Partic., Infin.				
		Comparative.			Adjectives, Adverbs.				
Superlative.	Prepositions, Phrases.								
					Clauses, Sentences.				

C. DIRECTIONS FOR THE USE OF ADVERBS.

624. Adjective for Adverb. — *Never use an adjective where an adverb is required.* Thus: —

“He reads slow and distinct” is wrong. The adjectives “slow” and “distinct” should not be used to describe the manner of reading. The sentence should be, “He reads *slowly* and *distinctly*.”

625. Adverb for Predicate Adjective. — *Never use an adverb in place of an adjective to complete a copulative verb.*

“Miss Ward looked beautifully” is wrong. “Looked” is a copulative verb, for the meaning is, “She was beautiful in appearance.” We should therefore use a predicate-adjective, and say, “Miss Ward looked beautiful.”

626. Double Negatives. — *Use only one negative in making a denial.*

“He has never had nothing to do with it” should be, “He has never had anything to do with it.” The two negatives neutralize each other, and spoil the meaning of the sentence.

(a) Never use such expressions as, “I don’t scarcely ever go,” or “We do not hardly expect it,” when the meaning is, “I scarcely ever go,” or, “I hardly expect it.”

(b) Such expressions as, "We are *not unmindful* of your kindness," "He is *never unwilling* to learn," are right, and convey just the meaning intended. What is the meaning?

627. *Adverbial expressions should be so placed in the sentence as to convey just the meaning intended.* Compare —

Only the address can be written on this side (nothing else).

The address can **only** be written on this side (not printed).

The address can be written on *this* side **only** (not on the other).

Exercise 306. — 1. **Point out the errors** in these sentences, giving the rule violated : —

1. A miser gives nothing to nobody.
2. I never hear from him scarcely.
3. How sweetly the music sounds!
4. He was tolerable well-informed.
5. The princess looked beautifully.
6. We reached home safely and soundly.
7. Did not the young man appear awkwardly?
8. We shall not go this week, I don't think.
9. This water tastes strongly of sulphur.
10. The fruit looks well, but it tastes badly.
11. How strangely everything seems in this light!
12. Do you feel badly?

Say rather, "Do you feel *ill, tired, unhappy*?" "Bad" is indefinite and ambiguous.

13. The children were very pleased with their presents. He was too confused to speak.

Very and *too* should never be used to modify a participle.

2. Point out errors of any kind in these sentences : —

1. Do you intend to sing or no? 2. Most all men are ambitious.

Never use *most* when you mean *almost*.

3. I never liked neither him nor his opinions. 4. You are too frightened to be of any use. 5. Three of the crew only reached the shore. 6. He desired to be rich very much. 7. I shall be glad to see you always. 8. There only was a solitary fort where Chicago stands fifty years ago. 9. Deaf-mutes can only talk with their hands or lips or eyes. 10. Leave more space between each column.

CHAPTER XXI.

PREPOSITIONS.

[Review pages 107-111.]

628. Prepositions are comparatively few in number; and, though they do not themselves modify other words, they are used *to show how different ideas are related to each other*. They help to make phrases that modify like adjectives and adverbs.

629. The *object* of a preposition may be, —

1. **A Noun:** The farmers are at *work* in the *field*.

or some expression equivalent to a noun; as, —

2. **A Pronoun:** I went from *you* to *her*.
3. **A Gerund:** Thank him for *doing* the errand.
4. **An Infinitive:** He did nothing but *sing*.
5. **A Phrase:** The Indians fired from *behind the trees*.
6. **A Clause:** I am surprised at *what you say*.

(a) The object sometimes precedes the preposition, especially in poetry. Thus:—

The heavy night hung dark the *hills* and *waters o'er*.

USES OF PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES.

630. A prepositional phrase may be used like an *adjective* —

- (1) *To modify a noun or a pronoun*; as in —

There is no hope *of rescue*. Which *of you* will go?

or (2) *As a subjective complement*; as in —

Your friend is in good spirits. They are of great service.

(a) When used as an adjective, it may be called an *adjective phrase*.

631. A prepositional phrase may be used like an *adverb* to modify —

1. **A Verb:** Go in haste | to the town | for the doctor.
 2. { **An Infinitive:** To waste in youth is to want in age.
A Gerund: He succeeded after trying repeatedly.
 3. **A Participle:** Bees coming to hives laden with honey.
 4. **An Adjective:** The narrative is full of interest.
 5. **An Adverb:** She did well for a beginner.
- (a) When used as an adverb, it may be called an *adverb phrase*.

632. A prepositional phrase may be used like a *noun*, as subject, object, etc., — especially after *from*. Thus: —

They came *from across the seas*.

Out of sight is out of mind.

Exercise 307. — Point out the prepositional phrases in Exercise 299, and tell whether they are used as adjectives or as adverbs.

633. **Phrase Prepositions.** — Some little phrases are so much like single prepositions in their use, that, instead of separating them, we may call them *phrase prepositions*. Thus: —

It crawled	out of	}	a hole.	In	}	color, this is perfect.
	from out			As to		
				As for		

The following are some of the phrases most commonly used as prepositions: —
According to; as to; as for; along with; instead of; out of; in spite of; in front of; by means of; on board; etc.

634. **Prepositions as Adverbs or Conjunctions.** — Most of the prepositions were once adverbs, and are often used as such. Thus: —

It isn't worth talking **about**. How was it disposed **of**?

Sometimes they become conjunctions [§ 647]. Thus: —

Stay **till** I come. We started **before** the moon rose.

4. MODE.

497. If we study verbs in sentences we find them used to predicate in several ways or modes. Thus, they may be used —

1. **To command**; As, **Be** ready; **Wish** with me.
2. **To question**; As, **Is** he ready? **Who wishes** this?
To assert positively; As, I **am** ready; She **wishes** it.
3. **To say something doubtfully, as if only thought of**; As,
If it **be** there I will bring it; If I **were** ready I would go.

498. It was once the custom to use in such cases quite different forms of the verb called *Modes*, to show the manner or mood in which a person spoke. Comparatively few of these forms remain; and hardly any of them, or even the phrases that have replaced them, are now invariably used in any one way. Still it is customary to say that verbs are in the *indicative, imperative, or subjunctive* modes, according as they represent *facts, commands, or only thoughts*.

499. **Indicative Mode.** — The most common of these modes is the indicative; for generally our statements are presented as *facts*, or at least we *assume* them to be facts.

500. A verb is in the *Indicative Mode* when used —

1. *To state something as a fact.*
2. *To ask a simple question.*

The verbs in the following sentences are all in the indicative mode. Try to tell why.

He *goes* quickly. *Does* she *wish* it? Fish *can live* only in the water. We *shall rise* at daybreak. You *may go* now. *Can* you *analyze* the sentence? If she *was* there I *failed* to see her. If he *comes*, — as he probably will, — I *shall meet* him. If he *was* poor he *was* honest. I *could have gone* yesterday. Perhaps it is true.

Exercise 309.—1. Fill the blank with a suitable preposition if one is needed.

1. This work is different — any that have appeared. 2. When shall you be — home? 3. I should have gone if I had been able —. 4. Do smell — these flowers. 5. The signing — that note was a mistake. 6. Let us go — the park. 7. His answer was very different — yours. 8. I could prevail — him to go. 9. Try to profit — the failures of others. 10. There is constant rivalry — the four roads.

11. He differed — his friends. 12. We arrived — a late train, and stayed — the hotel till morning. 13. — what street do you live? 14. Virtue and vice differ widely — each other. 15. How do you reconcile such actions — what he said? 16. First become reconciled — thy brother. 17. Is he worthy — your confidence? 18. He plays — the organ very skillfully. 19. It is — no use to try.

Exercise 309.—2. Make a study of the following selection with special reference to the construction of prepositions and prepositional phrases.

THE LOVE OF COUNTRY.

Breathes there the man with soul so dead,
 Who never to himself hath said,
 This is my own, my native land?
 Whose heart hath ne'er within him burned,
 As home his footsteps he hath turned
 From wandering on a foreign strand?

If such there breathe, go, mark him well!
 For him no minstrel raptures swell;
 High though his titles, proud his name,
 Boundless his wealth as wish can claim,—
 Despite those titles, power, and pelf,
 The wretch, concentr'd all in self,
 Living, shall forfeit fair renown,
 And, doubly dying, shall go down
 To the vile dust, from whence he sprung,
 Unwept, unhonored, and unsung.

— *Sir Walter Scott.*

CHAPTER XXIII.

CONJUNCTIONS.

[Review pages 111-114.]

638. Since we first defined conjunctions (§ 193) we have studied several other kinds of connective words:—

(1) The **conjunctive pronouns** *who, which, that, what, etc.*, which, while they connect, also do the work of nouns and pronouns ;

(2) The **conjunctive adjectives** *which, whichever, what, etc.*, which modify nouns and also connect clauses ;

(3) The **conjunctive adverbs** *when, where, while, etc.*, which, besides connecting, always modify ; and—

(4) The **prepositions**, which show the relation between words.

We now come to genuine *Conjunctions*, the chief use of which is to *connect* the parts of compound and complex sentences.

 KINDS.

639. Conjunctions are divided according to their use into two classes :

(1) *co-ordinating* conjunctions, that connect the parts of a sentence so that they remain *alike in rank* or construction ; and

(2) *subordinating* conjunctions, that make one of the connected parts dependent upon or *a part of* the other.

“Co-ordinate” means *of equal rank* ; “subordinate,” *of inferior rank*.

640. Co-ordinating conjunctions are used to connect, (1) *The members of a compound sentence.* Thus:—

The floods came, **and** the winds blew, **but** it fell not.
We must overcome evil, **or** it will overcome us.

(2) *Words, phrases, and clauses having the same construction.*
Thus:—

Bright **and** happy children were running **or** playing there.
True friends are the same in prosperity **and** in adversity.
I do not know when he came **nor** whither he went.

(a) Co-ordinating conjunctions are sometimes used at the beginning of a separate sentence to connect it in meaning with what precedes.

641. We give the name co-ordinating conjunctions *first* to *and, but, or, nor*, which do nothing but connect; *secondly*, to certain words which, though they retain their adverbial meaning, serve principally to show the connection between the members of a compound sentence. Thus:—

I do not believe in the change; **however**, I shall not oppose it.

(a) *Therefore, hence, still, besides, consequently, yet, likewise, moreover, else, then, also, accordingly, nevertheless, notwithstanding*, etc., are words of this kind. Try to form sentences beginning with them, and you will see that they refer to what has been said before in each case.

642. A Co-ordinating conjunction is one that joins sentences or parts of sentences having the same rank.

643. We can if we wish divide all co-ordinating conjunctions into four classes:—

1. *Copulative*, or such as merely join together, like **and**.
2. *Alternative*, or such as offer a choice between two, like **or**.
3. *Adversative*, or such as imply that one part is opposed to the other, like **but**.
4. *Causal*, or such as assign a cause, a reason, a result, etc., like **for**.

644. Correlatives. — Some conjunctions, called *correlatives*, are used in pairs, one before each of the connected parts to make their connection more evident. Thus:—

I have **both** seen **and** heard the orator.

They are to meet us **either** in Paris **or** in London.

Give me **neither** poverty **nor** riches.

Whether to go **or** to return is the question.

NOTE. — The first word of each pair may be parsed as an auxiliary or *assistant* conjunction helping the other to do the connecting.

Exercise 310. — Point out the conjunctions, and explain what each connects.

1. He is liberal, but he is not generous. 2. They are poor, yet they are not needy. 3. Both he and I are going. 4. I believed; therefore have I spoken. 5. That route is dangerous: besides, we have no guide. 6. The book is not perfect: still, it is very helpful. 7. Either Hamlet was insane, or he feigned insanity. 8. The sea is rough, for I hear the surf. 9. He yields neither to force nor to persuasion.

10. The fault is neither yours nor mine, but theirs. 11. I have had experience both in sickness and in health. 12. But I can never be natural enough, even when there is the most occasion. 13. As to the book you mention, I am in doubt whether to read it or not. 14. *We* cannot go, nor should *you*. 15. He is a genius, though he does not seem so.

16. Men will reap as they sow. 17. He will die some day; for all men are mortal. 18. He is very rich, yet he is not contented. 19. Wise men love truth; whereas fools shun it. 20. And now abideth faith, hope, charity, but the greatest of these is charity.

645. Subordinating Conjunctions. — If we unite the sentences, —

Rain has fallen. The grass is wet, —

by the co-ordinating conjunction “and”; thus, —

Rain has fallen, **and** the grass is wet, —

we make a compound sentence with co-ordinate members; that is, with members of equal rank. But if we unite them by the conjunction “because”; thus, —

The grass is wet, **because** rain has fallen —

we change their relation and rank, and make one of them an *adverb clause* that gives a reason for the other, by telling *why* the grass is wet.

So, too, in the sentences, —

It will dry **after** *the sun has risen*. (When ?)

We must hasten, **that** *we may meet our friends*. (Why ?)

We shall wait **if** *they have not come*. (On what condition ?) —

the conjunctions **after**, **that**, **if**, change what might be independent sentences into adverb clauses that modify verbs by showing *when*, *why*, *on what condition*, etc.

646. Conjunctions of this kind connect two sentences by changing one of them into a clause which becomes part of the other, and they are therefore called *subordinating*.

647. Most subordinating conjunctions are used to make *adverb clauses*, which may modify in a variety of ways. Thus, they may denote : —

1. **Time**: We waited *after* $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{before, since,} \\ \textit{till, until, ere,} \end{array} \right\}$ *you came*.
2. **Cause or Reason**: I will go *because* $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{for, since, as,} \\ \textit{inasmuch as,} \end{array} \right\}$ *you ask it*.
3. **Manner**: Work *as if* (*as though*) *you were paid*.
4. **Comparison**: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{The nights are longer than the days [are].} \\ \textit{Venus is more distant than the moon [is].} \end{array} \right.$
5. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textbf{Condition,} \\ \textbf{Concession, etc.} \end{array} \right. : \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{I will go if} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{unless} \\ \textit{provided} \end{array} \right\} \textit{he needs me.} \\ \textit{Though (although) he is poor he is content.} \end{array} \right.$
6. **Purpose or Result**: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{Take good care that (lest) they escape.} \\ \textit{Exercise daily that you may grow strong.} \end{array} \right.$

648. The subordinating conjunction *that* (and sometimes *whether*) is often used in making a noun clause. Thus the sentences —

He was wrong, We knew that fact, —

when united by *that* become —

We knew *that he was wrong*.

So —

Ask whether *the steamer has sailed*.

649. A Subordinating conjunction is one that changes an independent into a dependent clause, and connects it to the rest of the sentence.

A subordinating conjunction often serves simply to introduce a noun clause used as subject. As in —

That you have wronged me doth appear in this.

650. Phrase Conjunctions. — Some little phrases are used to connect like single words. For example :—

Corn *as well as* wheat may be raised here.

I shall go *inasmuch as* he has invited me.

The most common phrase conjunctions are, *as if, as though, as well, forasmuch as, provided that, seeing that, so that, in order that, etc.*

651. Parsing Conjunctions. — In parsing a conjunction we are to tell, (1) its *kind*, and (2) *what it connects*. The following forms may be used :—

1. He spoke and acted [as if (his) life were in danger].

and is a *co-ordinating* conjunction, and connects the two verbs *spoke* and *acted*.

as if is a *subordinating* phrase conjunction, and connects the adverb clause to *spoke* and *acted*, which it modifies.

2. [After we had sailed] we found that (the) ship leaked.

after is a *subordinating* conjunction, and connects the adverb clause to *found*, which it modifies.

that is a *subordinating* conjunction, and joins the noun clause to *found*, of which it is the object.

652. SUMMARY: FORMS FOR PARSING.

Kinds.	— is a	{	Co-ordinating Subordinating Correlative	}	Conjunction ;
Uses.	{	It connects the co-ordinate It connects the adverb (or noun) clause to It helps — to connect — and — .	}	words — and — phrases — and — clauses — and —	

Exercise 311. — 1. Parse the prepositions in the following sentences.

2. Analyze the sentences, and parse the conjunctions.

1. Though I admire his courage, I detest his cruelty. 2. Remain until sunset. 3. Do not go until the sun has set. 4. Think twice before you speak. 5. I have not seen my friend since he returned from Dublin. 6. If I were not Alexander, I would be Diogenes. 7. I am proud that I am an American. 8. We know that the moon is uninhabited. 9. That the moon is uninhabited is well known.

10. The fact that the moon is uninhabited is well known. 11. It is well known that the moon is not inhabited. 12. The fact is that the moon has no inhabitants. 13. As Caesar loved me, I weep for him. 14. Come down ere my child die. 15. It is more than heart can bear. 16. Language was given us that we may say pleasant things to each other. 17. If spring is without blossoms, autumn will be without fruit. 18. It was so cold that the mercury froze. 19. He failed in business because he was dishonest.

653. Directions for the Use of Conjunctions. — Observe these rules: —

1. Do not use “or” for “nor” as the correlative of “neither.”
 “Neither you or I” should be “Neither you nor I.”

2. Do not use “like” instead of “as” or “as if.”
 He acted like (as if) he was crazy. Sing like (as) I do.

3. Do not use “but” for “than” after “other” or any comparative word.

I have no other friend but (than) you ; or, I have no friend but you.

4. *Do not use "but what" for "that" or "but that."*

I have no doubt *but what* (that) he did it.

5. *Do not use "if" when you mean "whether."*

See if (*whether*) he can go.

Exercise 312. — 1. Supply an appropriate conjunction.

1. I have no other reason — this. 2. I did not know but — you were busy. 3. He will neither come in — go out. 4. Is there no one else — he to go? 5. He no sooner sees me, — he runs to meet me. 6. He walked — he was lame. 7. He did not deny but — he owed the money. 8. I can't say — he will be here or not.

2. Try to answer the following questions :—

1. What may the object of a preposition be? 2. Give examples. 3. What parts of speech may the phrase resemble? 4. Use one as adjective, as complement, as adverb. 5. Explain the difference between prepositions and conjunctions. 6. Between the two kinds of conjunctions. 7. Discriminate between the italicized words in "*after* sunset," and "*after* the sun had set"; in "I have not seen him *since* noon," and "*Since* it is true, he must go." 8. In "Act *as* you feel"; "*As* I looked, it fell"; "She is not so tall *as* you," *as* is a conjunctive adverb. In "*As* life is short, improve it," *as* is a conjunction; and in "This is such *as* I want," *as* is a pronoun. Try to explain why.

3. Parse the conjunctions in the following selection :—

How sleep the Brave who sink to rest
By all their country's wishes blest!
When Spring, with dewy fingers cold,
Returns to deck their hallowed mold,
She there shall dress a sweeter sod
Than Fancy's feet have ever trod.

By fairy hands their knell is rung,
By forms unseen their dirge is sung;
There Honor comes, a pilgrim gray,
To bless the turf that wraps their clay,
And Freedom shall awhile repair
To dwell a weeping hermit there.

— Collins.

CHAPTER XXIV.

INTERJECTIONS, ETC.

654. We call interjections one of the parts of speech because they are spoken and written as words; but they cannot enter into the construction of sentences, being only "thrown in between" them.

They are half-way between ordinary language and the language of coughing, laughing, crying, and so on, which they are made to imitate.

655. Among commonly-written interjections are included —

I. Words used instead of an assertion to express *feeling* of various kinds: —

- (a) *Surprise or wonder*; as, **oh, ah, lo, whew.**
- (b) *Pleasure, joy, exultation*; as, **oh, ah, aha, hey, hurrah.**
- (c) *Pain, sadness, sorrow*; as, **oh, ah, alas, alack, alack-a-day.**
- (d) *Contempt, disgust*; as, **pshaw, fie, fudge, pooh, ugh, bah.**

II. Words used instead of a *question*; as, **eh? ah? hey?**

III. Words used instead of a *command*: —

- (a) To *call attention*; as, **O, lo, ho, hem, hollo, ahoy.**
- (b) To *silence*; as, **hist, hush, whist, 'st, mum.**
- (c) To *direct, expel*, and so on; as, **whoa, gee, haw, scat.**

IV. Words used to *imitate* sounds made by animals, machines, and so on. As, —

**bow-wow, ba-a-a, pop, bang, ding-dong, rub-a-dub, whiz, whir-r,
patter.**

Notice the sound of such verbs and nouns as **grunt, buzz, roar, crash, hiss, puff.**

OTHER EXCLAMATORY WORDS.

656. Many ordinary words and phrases are often used independently as mere exclamations, when their real meaning is hardly thought of. So with—

(1) *Nouns and pronouns* : fire, nonsense, mercy, shame, what.

(2) *Verbs* : help, behold, look, see, begone, hark, listen.

(3) *Adjectives* : hail, well, welcome, strange, good, bravo.

(4) *Adverbs, prepositions, and phrases* : out, indeed, how, why, back, forward ; on, up ; amen, O dear, dear me, farewell, adieu, good-by, good-day.

657. When such an expression, even though used alone, retains its original meaning, we may supply what is omitted, and treat the word as part of a sentence. Thus :—

Silence ! (keep silence !) Good ! (that is good !)

658. Sometimes, as when greatly excited, we abandon sentences altogether, and utter only the most important words ; as, —

A sail ! a sail ! Now for the boats ! Down with it !
Steady ! Lower ! To your oars, men !

Exercise 313.— Write sentences, using each of these words in the right way :—

O ! ahoy ! alas ! what ! ho ! Oh ! eh ! pshaw ! hark ! ah !

CHAPTER XXV.

SENTENCES AND THEIR ELEMENTS.

659. For convenience in reviewing what we have learned, the following summary is presented.

SENTENCES : SUMMARY.

<p>Sentences are classified according to</p> <p>Use: { as { assertive. interrogative. imperative. [exclamatory.]</p> <p>Form: { as { simple. compound. complex. complex compound.</p>	<p>The Elements of a Sentence are</p>	<p>Words: the eight parts of speech.</p> <p>Phrases: { adjective; adverbial; verb; prepositional; possessive; appositive; infinitive; participle.</p> <p>adjec. { explanatory. restrictive.</p> <p>adverb [see p. 297.]</p> <p>Clauses: { noun { subject; ob- ject; complement. appositive. explanatory.</p>
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660. Besides the foundation elements that we call the (1) *base*, a simple sentence may contain (2) *modifiers*, and (3) *independent* expressions.

661. **The Base of a Sentence.** — The *essential predicate* is always a verb or verb phrase. The *subject*, *object*, *subjective complement*, or *objective complement* may be —

1. **A Noun:** *Napoleon* overthrew the *government*, and became *Emperor*. He made his brothers *Kings*.

2. **A Pronoun:** *They* released *us*. Debtors are *those* in debt. The treaty made Porto Rico *ours*.

3. **An Adjective** [as subjective or objective complement only]: They are *silent*. Strike the traitor *dead*!

4. **A Phrase:** { *Out of sight is out of mind.*
To be absent is to be forgotten.
His keeping busy prevented his being homesick.
They will be in search of work.
His success will render further help of no use.

5. **A Noun Clause:** { *What I learn cannot be taken from me.*
We know that life is uncertain.
The fact is, that she is deaf, dumb, and blind.
My mother made me what I am.

6. **A Quotation:** { *"I still live,"* was the last that he said.
His dying words were, *"Don't give up the ship."*
Galileo exclaimed, *"It does move."*
I have made my motto, *"Without haste, without rest."*

Some of these constructions are comparatively rare.

662. **Modifiers.** — I. A *noun* or a *pronoun* in any construction may be modified by —

1. **An Adjective** { word: *All* men have *equal* rights.
phrase: The silence was *strangely ominous*.
clause: Those *that think* govern those *that toil*.
2. **A Prepositional Phrase:** There is a light *in the window for thee*.
3. **A Possessive** { word: Am I *my brother's* keeper?
phrase: It was *the rugged mountaineer's* cabin.
4. **An Appositive** { word: The planet *Saturn* has two rings.
phrase: Gen. Miles, *the commander-in-chief of the army*.
clause: The axiom *that the whole is greater than any part*.
5. **A Participle** { word: They found him *wounded and dying*.
phrase: Some frail memorial, *still erected nigh*.
6. **An Infinitive Phrase:** A plan *to light the streets by electricity*.
7. **An Explanatory Noun Clause:** *It is true that air has weight*.

663. II. *A verb, infinitive, participle, adverb, or adjective* may be modified by —

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1. An Adverb | { | word : <i>Slowly</i> fades the light of day.
phrase : He is waiting <i>very patiently</i> . He will come
<i>by and by</i> .
clause : <i>When he comes, go where you choose</i> . |
| 2. A Prepositional Phrase : Having risen <i>from poverty to wealth</i> . | | |
| 3. A Noun or Noun Phrase : Go <i>Tuesday</i> and stay <i>six weeks</i> . | | |
| 4. An Infinitive Phrase : | | { We came <i>to demand our rights</i> .
The land is pleasant <i>to live in</i> . |

664. **Independent Expressions.** — A sentence may contain a word or phrase that is independent of other words, neither belonging to the base nor used as a modifier or a connective. Such are —

1. **Vocatives**, or words used in address, *As*, —
Ye crags and peaks, I'm with you once again.
Life, you and I have been long together.
2. **Exclamatory expressions**, including *interjections*. *As*, —
Alas! poor Yorick! I knew him, Horatio.
Hurrah! Victory! The battle has been won!
3. **Parenthetical words or phrases** introduced into the sentence for various reasons. *As*, —
By the way, I met your friend yesterday.
Well, I must leave you. Now, come to see me soon.
He reached the house, *it seems*, too late to be of service.

665. We sometimes find sentences that contain what are called *pleonastic* words, used for emphasis, or to call attention to what is to be spoken of. *As* in, —

Thy rod and thy staff, they comfort me.
The boy, O where was he?

In parsing we call such words “independent by pleonasm.”

666. **Compound Elements.** — Any element in a sentence, whether a part of the base or a modifier, may be compounded

of two or more simple elements, usually joined by co-ordinating conjunctions. Thus: —

In Him we *live and move*. He is both *wise and good*.
 Speak *firmly but kindly*. Learn *who he is and where he is*.

Exercise 314. — **Analyze** these sentences, and show which elements of each sentence are compound: —

1. There health and plenty cheered the laboring swain. 2. Regular and daily exercise was the origin and secret of his health. 3. Gayly rode the hunters through the valleys or over the hills. 4. Love for study, a desire to do right, and care in the choice of friends, were traits of his character. 5. We were deeply impressed by the majesty and sublimity of the cataract and its surroundings. 6. Which would they choose, to live at peace with none, or to die at peace with all? 7. Either sooner or later temperance fortifies and purifies the heart. 8. Make the house where gods may dwell, beautiful, entire, and clean.

667. Elliptical Sentences. — We often shorten our sentences by omitting one or more words which are not needed to show our meaning, but which must be expressed when the sentence is analyzed. The ellipsis, or omission, may generally be readily supplied. The following are examples:—

I did not know [*that*] he was dead.
 This is the book [*which*] you gave me.
 The tale is wonderful if [*it is*] true.
 John is older than his sister [*is old*].
 Come as soon as you can [*come*].
 You speak as [*you would speak*] if you doubted me.
 He treats me as [*he treats*] a friend.
 He will return, but no one knows when [*he will return*].
 [*It is*] no matter what you think.
 Though [*he was*] poor, he was generous.

668. Clauses and Clause Connectives. — The different kinds of clauses must be carefully distinguished, and their connection with the rest of the sentence indicated clearly. The following forms may be used: —

- I. { — is an **Adjective clause** modifying the noun (or pronoun) —
 The *clause-connective* is { 1. The relative pronouns *who, which, that, as*.
 2. The relative adverbs *where, when, whence, why, etc.*
- II. { — is an **Adverb clause** modifying the verb (adj. or adv.) —
 by denoting *time, place, cause, manner, comparison, condition, concession, purpose, etc.*
 The *clause-connective* is { 1. The conj. adv. *where, when, while, whence, as, etc.*
 2. The sub. conj. *till, before, after, if, for, because, as, than, that, etc.*
- III. { — is a
Noun clause; used { 1. As *subject* of the verb —.
 2. As *object* of the verb —.
 3. As *object* of the prep. —.
 4. As *subjective complement* of —.
 5. In *apposition* with the noun —.
 6. To *explain the anticipative subject* (or object) *it*.
 The *clause-connective* is { 1. The conj. pro. *what, whatever, whoever, etc.*
 2. The conj. adj. *which, what, etc.*
 3. The conj. adv. *how, why, when, where, etc.*
 4. The sub. conj. *that* or *whether*.

669. In studying selections for analysis and parsing, observe the following directions: —

1. Consult the dictionary for the meaning of unfamiliar words.
2. Transpose the words into their common prose order, unless the construction seems clear to you.
3. Select the clauses, and show how each is used.
4. Classify the sentence, and analyze each part of it.

Exercise 315. — 1. **Classify** * the clauses in these sentences, and show, according to the preceding forms, **how each is used**.

* *To the Teacher.* — The system of analyzing sentences by marking heretofore used may be continued so long as it proves useful. For blackboard illustration, or for written work in the earlier stages of the student's progress, it will be found very helpful. It is a

2. Parse the clause-connectives.

1. We acquire the strength that we overcome. 2. O Solitude! where are the charms that sages have seen in thy face? 3. Life is what we make it. 4. Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty. 5. What pleases you will please me. 6. The fact is that he has betrayed my confidence. 7. He knew not that the chieftain lay unconscious of his son. 8. It is in vain that you seek to escape.

9. While he slept the enemy came. 10. What he spake, though it lacked form a little, was not madness. 11. All that he does is to distribute what others produce. 12. He that fights and runs away may live to fight another day. 13. The best of what we do and are is poor enough. 14. I thank God that I never hated any man because he was poor or because he was ignorant. 15. A great many men, if put into the right position, would be Columbuses. 16. No wonder you are deaf to all I say. 17. He whistled as he went, for want of thought. 18. Nothing waxeth old sooner than a good turn or a favor. 19. When faith is lost, when honor dies, the man is dead. 20. Be silent, or say something better than silence. 21. Patience is so like Fortitude, that she seems either her sister or her daughter.

22. His misery was such that none of his friends could refrain from weeping. 23. What stronger breastplate than a heart untainted? 24. Thrice is he armed who hath his quarrel just; and he but naked, though locked up in steel, whose conscience with injustice is corrupted. 25. Still the wonder grew that one small head could carry all he knew. 26. When Strength and Justice are true yoke-fellows, where can be found a mightier pair than they? 27. You will gain a good reputation, if you endeavor to be what you desire to appear. 28. He made it clear that the plan was impossible. 29. He felt as though himself were he on whose sole arm hung victory.

30. Whoever thinks a faultless piece to see,
Thinks what ne'er was, nor is, nor e'er shall be.

Exercise 316.— Analyze the following sentences, classifying the clauses, and parsing the words:—

1. To dare is great, but to bear is greater. 2. Write it on your heart that every day is the best day of the year. 3. Heaven is for those who think of it. 4. Live as though life were earnest, and life will be so. 5. Sweet it is to have

means, however, and not an end. Whenever the attention that should be centered on the structure of the sentence is diverted to follow an intricate system of marking or diagramming, there is a waste of time and energy. As the student advances, the details of parsing and analysis with which he has become familiar should be abandoned, and the thought focused on the more difficult constructions. In doing this oral analysis is both economical and essential.

done the thing one ought. 6. He that loveth makes his own the grandeur that he loves. 7. "Don't cross the bridge till you come to it" is a proverb old and of excellent wit. 8. There's nothing so contagious as pure openness of heart. 9. Who does the best his circumstance allows, does well, acts nobly; angels could do no more. 10. He is not worthy of the honeycomb that shuns the hives because the bees have stings.

11. Find thou always time to say some earnest word between the idle talk. 12. Duties are ours, but events are God's. 13. Brooding all day will not arm a man against misery. 14. Nothing that is shall perish utterly. 15. There's nothing but what's bearable as long as a man can work. 16. It is better to fight for the good than to rail at the ill. 17. Love all, trust a few, do wrong to none. 18. Corn growing, larks singing, garden full of flowers, fresh air on the sea — O, it is wonderful! 19. We always may be what we might have been. 20. It isn't so much what a man has that makes him happy, as it is what he doesn't want.

21. We are made happy by what we are, not by what we have. 22. A man's reach should exceed his grasp, or what's a heaven for? 23. It's very easy finding reasons why other folks should be patient. 24. Who laughs at crooked men needs walk very straight. 25. We are such stuff as dreams are made of, and our little life is rounded with a sleep. 26. He who neglects the present moment throws away all he has. 27. "One soweth and another reapeth" is a verity that applies to evil as well as good. 28. Rich gifts wax poor when givers prove unkind. 29. Said he, "All that I am, my mother made me." 30. Since my country calls me, I obey. 31. The days are made on a loom whereof the warp and woof are past and future time. 32. Let me make the songs of a people, and I care not who makes the laws.

33. Words pass as wind, but where great deeds were done
A power abides, transfused from sire to son.

670. Variety of Expression. — [See pp. 68–72.] Among the many ways of varying our forms of expression are the following: —

1. Passive forms may be used for active, and *vice versa*. Thus: —

1. All *may make* mistakes. 1. Mistakes *may be made* by all.

2. The introductory *there* or *it* may be used. Thus: —

1. A messenger came. 1. *There* came a messenger.
2. To retreat was impossible. 2. *It* was impossible to retreat.

3. Words may be expanded to phrases, and phrases to clauses. Thus :—

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. <i>Japanese tea.</i> | 1. <i>Tea raised in Japan.</i> |
| 2. <i>The inventor of the telephone.</i> | 2. <i>He that invented the telephone.</i> |
| 3. <i>Before sailing.</i> | 3. <i>Before they had sailed.</i> |
| 4. <i>The voyage having begun.</i> | 4. <i>When the voyage had begun.</i> |

4. Clauses may be contracted to phrases. Thus :—

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. <i>Gray, who wrote the poem.</i> | 1. <i>Gray, the author of the poem.</i> |
| 2. <i>Regions that Stanley explored.</i> | 2. <i>Regions explored by Stanley.</i> |
| 3. <i>After we left Paris.</i> | 3. <i>Having left Paris.</i> |
| 4. <i>I thought that he was worthy.</i> | 4. <i>I thought him worthy.</i> |
| 5. <i>Come before the sun has risen.</i> | 5. <i>Come before sunrise.</i> |

5. Simple sentences may be combined into either compound or complex sentences. Thus :—

1. The Americans were not contending for money. They were contending for a principle. They refused to receive the tea.

1. The Americans were not contending for money, but for a principle, and they refused to receive the tea. (Compound.) Or :—

1. As the Americans were not contending for money, but for a principle, they refused to receive the tea. (Complex.)

6. Negative may be used for affirmative assertions, and interrogative for assertive sentences. Thus :—

1. Such pleasures attracted him. 1. Such pleasures were not unattractive to him.

2. We have suffered enough. 2. Have we not suffered enough?
Let us defend our rights. Shall we not defend our rights?

Exercise 317.— 1. Change the italicized expression in some one of the ways mentioned in the preceding section without changing the meaning. Describe the change you have made.

1. The *author of the book* is in Egypt.
2. The note is payable *on demand*.
3. He *canceled his liabilities*
4. I shall see you *on my return*.
5. They thought *me honest*.
6. I gave you the book *that you might read it*.
7. *If you call* you will see him.
8. *Morning dawning*, all fears were dispelled.
9. *Intemperance ruins* many a youth.
10. No place is like home.
11. It is by careful saving that men grow rich.
12. Shame being lost, all is lost.
13. We did not know *that our friend was ill*.
14. The miser is *unhappy*.
15. No man is perfect.
16. *As the king was dead*, a dispute arose as to the succession.
17. The light struggles dimly through the windows *which are darkened by dust*.
18. Many men who have made wonderful inventions have died poor.
19. *After*

passing Congress the bill was signed by the President. 20. The treaty which *Jay negotiated* was approved by the Senate.

2. Combine the following groups of simple sentences into compound or complex sentences.

1. Sir Walter Raleigh received from Queen Elizabeth a charter. It gave him a large territory in America. He sent out an exploring expedition in 1584.
 2. In 1607 three ships carried out a handful of people. They began the settlement of the United States. The largest one was named "Susan Constant."
 3. One of the most industrious men in the colony was John Smith. He was a young man. He had had many adventures. He was fond of boasting of them.
 4. The English government sent tea to Boston. A company of fifty men threw it into the sea. The men had disguised themselves as Indians.
 5. Paul Revere was an active patriot. The British had started for Lexington. He was sent to tell this to Adams and Hancock. They were in that town.
 6. Geoffrey Chaucer was the first great English poet. He was the author of the "Canterbury Tales." He was born in 1340. He died in 1400.

3. Paraphrase or expand some of the clauses in Exercises 315, 316.

318. SELECTIONS FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.*

1. Attention is the stuff that memory is made of, and memory is accumulated genius.
2. Wise sayings often fall on barren ground; but a kind word is never thrown away.
3. A great writer has said that grace is beauty in action: I say that justice is truth in action.
4. How easy it is for one benevolent being to diffuse pleasure around him; and how truly is a kind heart a fountain of gladness, making everything in its vicinity freshen into smiles.
5. If we do not plant knowledge when young, it will give us no shade when we are old.
6. To know by rote is no knowledge; it is only a retention of what is intrusted to the memory. What a man truly knows may be disposed of without regard to the author, or reference to the book whence he had it.

* *To the Teacher.*—Additional sentences for analysis and parsing may be found on other pages. All school readers of course furnish abundant and varied material for practice.

Practice in analysis and parsing should be continued till reasonable proficiency is attained, but time should not be wasted in carrying the practice beyond that point. Simple *mechanical* skill in these exercises is deadening rather than educational.

7. Alexander the Great, reflecting on his friends' degenerating into sloth and luxury, told them that it was a most slavish thing to luxuriate, and a most royal thing to labor.

8. Oh, what a glory doth this world put on him for who, with a fervent heart, goes forth under the bright and glorious sky !

9. Few men learn the highest use of books. After life-long study many a man discovers too late that to have had the philosopher's stone availed nothing without the philosopher to use it.

10. If the poor and humble toil that we may have food, must not the high and glorious toil for him in return, that he have light, guidance, freedom, immortality ?

11. Words are the leaves of the tree of knowledge, of which, if some fall away, a new succession takes their place.

12. The busy world shoves angrily aside
The man who stands with arms akimbo set,
Until the occasion tells him what to do ;
And he who waits to have his task marked out
Shall die and leave his errand unfulfilled.

13. Failure after long perseverance is much grander than never to have a striving good enough to be called a failure.

14. When the Breton sailor puts to sea, his prayer is, "Keep me, my God, for my boat is so small and Thy ocean is so wide."

15. 'Tis greatly wise to talk with our past hours,
And ask them what report they bore to heaven.

16. The happiest man is he who, being above the troubles which money brings, has his hands the fullest of work.

17. It is seldom that we find how great a man is until he dies.

18. Nine times out of ten, the best thing that can happen to a young man is to be tossed overboard and compelled to sink or swim for himself. In all my acquaintance I never knew a man to be drowned who was worth the saving.

19. If the way in which men express their thoughts is slipshod and mean, it will be very difficult for their thoughts themselves to escape being the same.

20. Learn from the earliest days to inure your principles against the perils of ridicule ; you can no more exercise your reason, if you live in the constant dread of laughter, than you can enjoy your life if you are in the constant terror of death.

21. Toiling, rejoicing, sorrowing, onward through life he goes ;
Each morning sees some task begin, each evening sees its close ;
Something attempted, something done, has earned a night's repose.

22. For manhood is the one immortal thing
 Beneath Time's changeful sky,
 And, where it lightened once, from age to age,
 Men come to learn, in grateful pilgrimage,
 That length of days is knowing when to die.

23. Press on ! surmount the rocky steeps ;
 Climb boldly o'er the torrent's arch :
 He fails alone who feebly creeps ;
 He wins who dares the hero's march.

Be thou a hero ! let thy might
 Tramp on eternal snows its way,
 And through the ebon walls of night,
 Hew down a passage unto day.

24. Young men who spend many years at school and college are too apt to forget the great end of life, which is to be and to do, not to read and brood over what other men have been and done.

25. A hundred years hence what difference will it make whether you were rich or poor, a peer or a peasant ? But what difference may it not make whether you did what was right or what was wrong ?

26. Books are yours,
 Within whose silent chambers treasure lies
 Preserved from age to age ; more precious far
 Than that accumulated store of gold
 And orient gems which, for a day of need,
 The sultan hides deep in ancestral tombs.
 These hoards of truth you can unlock at will.

— *Wordsworth.*

27. Daughters of Time, the hypocritic Days,
 Muffled and dumb like barefoot dervishes,
 And marching single in an endless file,
 Bring diadems and fagots in their hands.
 To each they offer gifts after his will,
 Bread, kingdoms, stars, and sky that holds them all.
 I, in my pleachéd garden, watched the pomp,
 Forgot my morning wishes, hastily
 Took a few herbs and apples, and the Day
 Turned and departed silent. I, too late,
 Under her solemn fillet saw the scorn.

— *R. W. Emerson.*

28. To go into solitude, a man needs to retire as much from his chamber as from society. I am not solitary whilst I read and write, though nobody is with me. But if a man would be alone, let him look at the stars. The rays that come from those heavenly worlds will separate between him and what he touches. One might think the atmosphere was made transparent with this design, to give man, in the heavenly bodies, the perpetual presence of the sublime. Seen in the streets of cities, how great they are! If the stars should appear one night in a thousand years, how would men believe and adore, and preserve for many generations the remembrance of the city of God which had been shown.

— *R. W. Emerson.*

29.

Beneath those rugged elms, that yew tree's shade,
 Where heaves the turf in many a mouldering heap,
 Each in his narrow cell forever laid,
 The rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep.

The breezy call of incense-breathing morn,
 The swallow twittering from the straw-built shed,
 The cock's shrill clarion, or the echoing horn,
 No more shall rouse them from their lowly bed.

For them no more the blazing hearth shall burn,
 Or busy housewife ply her evening care ;
 No children run to lisp their sire's return,
 Or climb his knees the envied kiss to share.

Oft did the harvest to their sickle yield,
 Their furrow oft the stubborn glebe has broke ;
 How jocund did they drive their team afield !
 How bowed the woods beneath their sturdy stroke !

Let not ambition mock their useful toil,
 Their homely joys, and destiny obscure ;
 Nor grandeur hear with a disdainful smile
 The short and simple annals of the poor.

The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
 And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
 Await alike the inevitable hour —
 The paths of glory lead but to the grave.

From Gray's Elegy in a Country Churchyard.

APPENDIX.

CHAPTER I.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF OUR LANGUAGE.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

No language ever came into being ready-made. A language, like a plant, is always a growth. It has its period of development from small beginnings, its time of vigorous maturity, and, it may be, of decline. The history of a tongue, or even of a dialect, is of necessity closely connected with that of the people using it. As a nation grows in power, the influence of its language must also spread; so, too, must that influence share in the decline of the people to which it belongs. The *literature* may indeed remain, but even that cannot grow. The splendid literatures of Greece and Rome are no richer to-day than they were when the Greeks succumbed to the Roman power, and the Romans to the barbarous hordes from Central Europe in the fifth century. Our own language is now a great power in the world because the tremendous activity of the English-speaking race has carried it to every quarter of the globe.

The history of the English tongue is most interesting, bound up as it is in that of the English people, — sharing in, and by its very form recording, the changes that have marked the wonderful development of the race. Fully to understand the language as we use it to-day, one should trace this history from the earliest time when English is recognizable as a distinct tongue. This is a long task; yet a few of the most important changes should be familiar to every one who wishes to read intelligently its literature.

The Britons. — The earliest race contributing definitely to make English history and the English language which is known to have inhabited the island of Great Britain, was that of the fierce and hardy Britons. Attacked by Julius Caesar, who led his Roman legions across the British Channel in the year B.C. 55, they were overpowered or driven into the fastnesses of Wales and Scotland by the close of the first century after Christ. Since the Britons never became thoroughly united with their conquerors, few of their customs or their words remain. Yet, in the proper names *Avon*, *Ezeter*, *Oxford*, *Thames*, and

in such familiar words as *cradle*, *glen*, *havoc*, *pool*, and *mug*, we have relics of the language that was spoken in England before the Christian Era.

The Romans.—For four centuries, or thereabouts, the Romans held sway over the greater portion of the island. Their dominion is marked in our vocabulary by the presence of *wall*, from the Latin *vallum*, and of *street*, from *strata (via)*, a *paved* (road or way). For, to hold their possessions, it was necessary that the conquerors should establish many *camp*s, or *castra* as they called them, and that these camps should be surrounded by walls, and connected by military roads, or streets. The word *castra* is seen also in the names of many of the towns where these camps were planted, as, *Lancaster*, *Gloucester*, *Chester*, and *Manchester*, and testifies to the Roman occupation just as those names in the United States do to the English settlement of this country.

Angles, Saxons, and Jutes.—Soon after the withdrawal of the Roman forces the land was invaded anew by a race distinct from Britons and Romans. They came from the lowlands of Europe that skirt the German Ocean and the lower Baltic, and spoke a language closely akin to that now in use there. Three divisions of this new Teutonic race came over at various times, in the latter part of the fifth century, — *Angles*, *Saxons*, and *Jutes*.

For a hundred years and more the struggle lasted between the Britons and their foes. Finally, however, the land came into the possession of the *Angles* and the *Saxons*, who, as well as the *Jutes*, ultimately united to form the *Aengliac* or *English* people, and who gave its name and its character to the English language. They in their turn, it is true, were assailed by invaders, — the fiery Norsemen from Denmark and Norway; but the new invaders were originally of the same blood, and in a measure mingled with, rather than absolutely overpowered, the English race, now fairly established in Britain. The influence, therefore, of this *Norse* invasion upon the language is not to be readily distinguished.

It is this *Anglo-Saxon* tongue, then, that forms, as it were, the *frame-work* of the English language as used by Alfred the Great ten centuries ago, and as we use it to-day. For more than five hundred years this was the speech of England.

The Normans.—While, like any other language, English suffered many modifications, there was no radical change till there came a new conquest of the island in A.D. 1066. In that year the Normans crossed from Northern France, and, after years of hard and bitter fighting, conquered the mingled Angles, Saxons, and Danes, and established a new rule, new manners, and, in part, a new language in the land. This new language, the Norman-French, was in reality but a modified form of the Latin, which the Romans, under Julius Caesar, had introduced into France more than a thousand years before.

The new customs brought by the invaders planted of course a large number of new words in the language of England, but its structure remained substantially Anglo-Saxon as before. Forms, however, were gradually becoming simpler. While the foreigners readily contributed new words and new ideas, they were impatient of adopting the forms of speech of their subjects; and the very shape of the words of English origin, as well as that of the borrowed terms, was modified in the course of the centuries required to unite the two races into one people. *Palace, castle, language, people, fashion* are examples of Norman-French words brought into our language through the Latin.

The Revival of Learning.— Another era that marks a comparatively sudden change in the language is that of the centuries which gave us the invention of printing and the discovery of America. One of the results of the great quickening of thought that distinguishes this period was the awakening of an interest in the ancient classics. A knowledge of the literature and the language of Greece and of Rome came to be regarded as an absolute essential in the training of every educated person. This era, known as “The Revival of Learning,” is responsible for the introduction of great numbers of Latin and Greek words.

Modern Additions.— In more recent times there has been a somewhat steady growth in the vocabulary, as inventions and scientific discoveries have made necessary the creation of new terms. Latin, and especially Greek, have furnished a multitude of words in science, and indeed for household use. *Telegraph, telephone, bicycle, geography, automobile, multiplication, invention*, are familiar words drawn into common service from these sources. Commerce and travel have supplied large numbers of words from almost every civilized language on the earth. From the **French**, for example, we have borrowed *apartment, cadet, burlesque*; from the **Italians**, *pilgrim, cupola, lava*; from the **Spanish**, *indigo, vanilla, cork*; from **Persia**, *candy, chess, caravan*; from **Africa**, *oasis, guinea, canary*; from **Arabia**, *admiral, coffee, lemon*, etc. The Philippines, Cuba, and Porto Rico are likely to furnish many more terms through the channels of trade and social intercourse.

Losses.— In this way a wonderfully rich and varied vocabulary has been built up in the English language, which is equalled by that of no other tongue. It must not be supposed, however, that the process of change has been wholly one of addition, — that there have been no losses. If one tries to read for the first time a page of Chaucer's “*Canterbury Tales*,” however familiar he may be with the English of to-day, he will seem to be trying to read a new language. Many of the words will be entirely strange, and even words that he recognizes will be oddly spelled. Yet Chaucer has been called “a well of English undefiled.” Words once in common use have disappeared, and the spelling of those still remaining has been greatly modified.

A clerk ther was of Oxenford also,
 That un-to logik hadde longe y-go.
 As lene was his hors as is a rake,
 And he was not right fat, I undertake ;
 But loked holwe, and ther-to soberly,
 Ful thredbar was his overest courtepy ;
 For he had geten him yet no benefyce,
 Ne was so worldly for to have offyce.

A clerk there was of Oxford also,
 That unto logic had long gone,
 As lean was his horse as is a rake,
 And he was not right fat, I undertake ;
 But looked hollow, and likewise soberly,
 Full threadbare was his uppermost short cloak ;
 For he had gotten him yet no benefice,
 Nor was so worldly for to have office.

From Skeat's "The Works of Geoffrey Chaucer."

The English language, or rather the Anglo-Saxon, like the ancient Latin and Greek, and the modern French and German, had a great many inflected forms. Where now a noun has two case forms, it once had five ; an adjective had at least nine different case forms, for an adjective was made to agree with its noun in gender, number, and case ; and the forms of the verb were much more numerous than at present. That is, English as first spoken, was rich in inflected forms for showing the relations of words to one another in the sentence. As such forms are most often made by attaching endings to the *stems* of nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and verbs, languages abounding in inflections are called *synthetic* languages. (Synthesis means putting together.) In the English of to-day these relations in the case of nouns and pronouns are expressed mainly by *prepositions*, and in the case of verbs many of the modifications in meaning are expressed by the use of *auxiliaries*. A language that is so constructed is called *analytical*. (Analysis means taking apart, or separating.)

Hardly less wonderful, perhaps, than the extraordinary development of its vocabulary, is the slow process by which English has changed from a *synthetic* to an *analytical* language. It has in this way gained greatly in simplicity, though it must be granted that there has been in some degree a loss in precision and in delicacy of expression. The pronunciation and the uncouth spelling of many English words bear curious and sometimes most perplexing witness to the vicissitudes through which our language has passed.

Present Changes.—The process of dropping inflections seems nearly to have reached a limit, yet there are two forms of the verb which we may even now see undergoing the process of reduction. The distinction in the use of *shall* and *will** in forming the Future Tense is less carefully observed by intelligent writers and speakers of to-day than it was by those of the middle of the nineteenth century, or earlier. This is true also of *should* and *would*. Again, the subjunctive mood as a distinct form has almost disappeared from common speech, though it is sparingly employed in literature. In discarding the subjunctive the language seems to be losing something of the delicacy of expression it once had. English, however, is at the opening of the twentieth century the greatest language power in existence, and bids fair to become ultimately the universal tongue.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

It appears to be impossible to frame a concise and exact definition of the Subjunctive mode, or description of its functions. It has been treated as distinguished from the Indicative only where it has separate forms, for in such cases only does it have a palpably distinctive force. The Indicative mode has been described as the one that is used in stating a fact, or in asking a simple question of fact, while the Subjunctive is used to express a thought involving doubt, concession, or wish. Yet the same feeling of doubt or indeterminateness that characterizes the Subjunctive is often conveyed by the forms that are now assigned to the Indicative. For example, in the sentence,

Even if he *fails* in this, he will still persevere,

the conditional force of the Indicative *fails*, appears to differ in degree, not in kind, from that of the Subjunctive *fail* in.

Even if he *fail* in this, he will still persevere. Again in —

Though he *may be telling* the truth, you cannot trust him, and

Though he *be telling* the truth, etc., the Indicative of the Potential phrase, *may be telling*, differs from the Subjunctive *be telling*, only in presenting the thought as somewhat less uncertain. Historically, it appears that the Indicative mode has borrowed something of the force of the Subjunctive; and in parsing the verb *fails*, or the Potential verb phrase *may be telling*, we may say that they are in the Indicative mode, and have the force of the Subjunctive (or are used with Subjunctive force).

There is, of course, the alternative treatment, which regards the Subjunctive as sharing the *forms* of the Indicative, rather than the Indicative as sharing the *force* of the Subjunctive. The second method appears to be more easy of

* This distinction, it is true, is only a few centuries old.

comprehension ; and as it leads to the same results when applied in the analysis of thought, it has been adopted here.

Other constructions in which a choice of modes is allowed are :

TEMPORAL CLAUSE.

Subjunctive. Wait till this tyranny *be* overpast.

Indicative. Wait till this tyranny *is* overpast.

PURPOSE CLAUSE.

Subjunctive. Let him take heed lest he *fall*.

Indicative. Let him take heed that he *does* not *fall*.

RESULT CLAUSE.

Subjunctive. So live that thou *go* not—

Indicative. So live that you *do* not *go*.

INDIRECT QUESTION.

Subjunctive. Which *were* the better course none could tell.

Indicative. Which *was* (or *would be*) the better course none could tell.

NOUN CLAUSE.

Subjunctive. The first requirement is that every man *be* in his place at the appointed hour.

Indicative. The first requirement is that every man *shall be* in his place at the appointed hour.

One form of condition, however, and one form of wish always require the verb to be distinctively in the Subjunctive mode. Examine the following sentences. In—

“If the owner *were* here he would not refuse permission,” it is distinctly implied that the owner is *not* here. Such conditions, where the supposition is the opposite of the fact, are often called *conditions contrary to fact*. In the wish—

“O that this tale *were* true,” it is clearly implied that the tale is *not* true. Such wishes may be termed *unattainable wishes*.

When the predicates of conditions contrary to fact or of unattainable wishes contain the word *be*, and when also they denote non-fulfilment in the present time, they are in the Subjunctive mode. When, however, these conditions and wishes relate to *past* time their verbs take the Indicative forms, as—

If you *had been* here, this would not have happened.

O *had* he *been* more careful.

So also do other verbs than *be* in such conditions and wishes relating to time present or past, as —

If he *saw* you here, he would certainly be angry (or If he *had seen*).

O had I the wings of a dove I would fly.

We hear occasionally in careless speech such expressions as —

“If he *was* here he would help.”

“I would not do this if I *was* you.” They are nevertheless as true violations of present correct usage as to say, “He doesn’t know nothing about the matter.”

If one examines any extended selection of a careful author, he will find by far the largest portion of the verbs in the Indicative mode, for even where the Subjunctive might be employed its place is usually taken by the Indicative. Yet its part in the master-pieces of English literature is by no means an insignificant one, and the discriminating use of the Subjunctive lends a grace and delicacy to the expression of thought of which the most finished writers of to-day gladly avail themselves.

The Potential phrases formed by the auxiliaries *could*, *may*, *might*, *should*, and *would* are sometimes treated as forms of the Subjunctive mode. It seems more consistent, however, and it certainly is much simpler, to class them as phrases in the Indicative mode with Subjunctive force, in such sentences as —

If he *should* remain he *would* be well entertained, I care not what you *may* do, and the like.

CHAPTER II.

CAPITALS AND PUNCTUATION.

A **capital letter** should be used to begin —

1. Every independent sentence, and generally every phrase or clause separately numbered.
2. Every line of poetry.
3. Every direct quotation.
4. All words used as proper nouns ; words made from proper nouns ; and abbreviations of them.
5. Names and titles applied to the Deity, to the Savior, to the Trinity, to the Virgin Mary, and to the Bible.

NOTE. — Pronouns standing for the Deity should begin with capitals when necessary to make their antecedent clear.

6. Titles of honor, respect, and affection, and official titles applied to a particular person or used with a name.
7. The principal words in the title of books, pictures, periodicals, or in the headings of chapters, etc.
8. The names of political parties, religious denominations, races of men, words used to name certain regions or sections of a country, and names of special importance.
9. The words I and O should always be capitals.

NOTE. — Important words may be capitalized for emphasis, but capitals should be used sparingly for this purpose. The present tendency is to use capitals much less than formerly.

EXERCISE 1.— Justify the use of **capitals** in the following words and expressions : —

Parent of Good, the Almighty, the Son of man, the Gospel, the Atlantic Ocean, New York City, Tuesday, March, last Summer, African, Penn., his Honor, the Duke of Portland, General Miles, the Mayor of Duluth, Admiral

Sampson, the North, Hoosier, the Baptists, the North of Europe, Whigs and Tories, Come gentle Spring, the Declaration of Independence, Prescott's Conquest of Peru, The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table.

Italic Letters are used in printing —

1. To indicate emphatic words.
2. For short titles of books, pictures, etc., and names of ships.
3. For foreign words introduced into an English sentence.
4. For words mentioned by name ; as the adverb *quickly*.

One line under a word in manuscript shows that it is to be printed in *italics* ; two lines, in SMALL CAPITALS ; three, in CAPITALS.

PUNCTUATION.

If we carefully observe the marks used by the best writers and publishers, we shall find that there is great diversity among them.

Some discard the use of the colon entirely. Many prefer as few capitals, italics, and punctuation marks as possible.

Some books have the period after the headings of chapters and pages, others do not.

This is a matter of taste and prevailing custom. Sometimes, however, the simple omission of a comma in a personal letter may decide an important case in law ; and a bill before the Massachusetts legislature was known as the "Semicolon Bill," because its meaning depended entirely upon the placing of a semicolon.

We shall not find good writers careless or inconsistent. When we write, we want to leave no chance of being misunderstood. When we speak, the tones of the voice and expression of the face help to make our meaning clear. If we are writing we need the help that punctuation marks can give us.

The rules for their use, which are given below, have been agreed upon by the majority of our most careful writers. In many cases each mark has its own use, and no other can fill its place as well ; in other cases we have to use our own judgment.

It is well for us to understand as many proper uses of punctuation marks as possible.

FOR REFERENCE. — Hill's "General Rules for Punctuation," Bigelow's "Handbook of Punctuation," and Wilson's "Treatise on Punctuation."

I. The **Period** (.) is used after —

1. A complete expression that is not interrogative or explanatory ;

2. Abbreviations, initial letters, and Roman letters used as numerals;
Ex., Sept., W. B. Richards, VII.
3. A heading, title, or signature, when it stands alone.

II. The Comma (,) —

Separates from the rest of the sentence : —

1. The name of the person or thing addressed ;
Ex., Richard, did you hear the alarm ?
My country, 'tis of thee.

NOTE. — Sometimes we find an exclamation point in such examples.

See § 348.

2. A direct quotation, or the parts of one if it is divided.
Ex., "Sir," replied I, "you do not know the cause of my grief."

Sets off : —

3. Appositive words and phrases ;
Ex., Robinson, the best player of the eleven, has broken his leg. See Ex. 184.
4. Adjective clauses, when non-restrictive or explanatory ; also adverb phrases and clauses which are separated from the words they modify ; and, often, conditional and concessive clauses.

NOTE. — Single noun clauses are not usually set off by commas.

Examples :

"The gray squirrels are fond of the high-bush blueberries, which grow in abundance on the margin of the pond."

— *F. Bolles.*

The rain having ceased, we went for May flowers.

"The Speedwell is noticeable during June and July, when clusters of these tiny flowers brighten many a waste spot along the sunny roadsides."

— *Mrs. Dana* : " *How to Know the Wild Flowers.* "

"As I pick my way through marshy inland woods, its bright fronds, standing nearly three feet high, crowd about me."

— " *The Marsh Fern* : " *Mrs. Dana.*

“If a man is slovenly in his ninety-nine cases of talking, he can seldom pull himself up to strength and exactitude in the hundredth case of writing.”

— *G. H. Palmer.*

“Though old the thought and oft expressed,
’Tis his at last who says it best.”

— *Lowell.*

5. The **Comma** is used to separate the parts of a series of coördinate words or expressions when there are no connecting words; and sometimes, when there *are* such connecting words, for the sake of emphasis or distinctness.

Ex., Franklin, Washington, Webster, and Lincoln, have been called the four greatest Americans.

NOTE. — Here the comma is used before “and ;” it also sets off the long subject.

6. It shows that words are omitted.

Ex., John was short of stature; Henry, tall.

7. It is used, in general, whenever a short pause is desired for a clearer understanding of the sentence.

“Obviously, good English is exact English.”

— *Palmer’s Self Cultivation in English.*

III. The Semicolon (;) —

1. Separates long clauses, and sometimes sentences which are themselves divided by commas. Its use after the sentences forming a paragraph, instead of the period, is to keep a closer connection of thought.

Ex., “Sometimes we leave an idea to be inferred from the context; sometimes we have more than one way of expressing the same idea; and sometimes we can express an idea only imperfectly, or not at all.”

— *Henry Sweet: “English Grammar.”*

2. Has the same uses as the comma when a longer pause is desired.

The wind is chill;
But let it whistle as it will,
We’ll keep our Christmas merry still.

— *Marmion.*

3. Is sometimes used instead of the colon, as a mark of specification ; and, like the colon in such cases, is often followed by a dash.

IV. The **Colon** (:). Although some writers discard the colon altogether, it has a distinct use :—

1. As a mark of specification ; as in introducing a formal statement or definition.
2. After the address in very formal letters.
3. It is also used to separate the parts of a sentence which are themselves divided by semicolons. Such sentences may, however, be punctuated by commas and semicolons.

V. The **Interrogation Point** (?) is used after every direct question.

VI. The **Exclamation Point** (!) is used after any expression that is highly exclamatory.

NOTE.—Every interjection was formerly followed by the exclamation point. Now it is used only at the end of an exclamatory expression, unless there are certain words distinctly requiring it. The interjection O never has it unless standing alone, when it is written Oh !

VII. The **Dash** (—) is properly used—

1. When there is a sudden break in the sentence.
2. To show omissions,
As, vs. 32–40. b. 1840, d.—
3. Instead of parentheses two dashes inclose something which is necessary to the meaning, yet is an interruption.
4. After other marks, to add to their force, or to introduce illustrations or several dependent expressions. In the latter case it follows a colon or semicolon.

NOTE.—The dash is perhaps more carelessly used than any other mark. The more closely we can keep each mark to a definite use the better for the reader.

VIII. The **Hyphen** (-)

1. Joins the parts of some compound words.
Ex., Anglo-Saxon, great-grandfather, olive-green, but *not* New York, fisherman, etc.

NOTE.—Observation will teach us when to use the hyphen in compound words. Some of the examples given above are

sometimes written without the hyphen. Like other marks, it should be used only when needed.

2. Is used between the syllables of a word on different lines.

IX. Quotation Marks (" ")

1. Always inclose a direct quotation, or the parts of such a quotation if it is divided by words not belonging to it.

Ex., "Yes, sir," said the messenger, "I will attend to it."

But an indirect quotation requires no marks.

Ex., The messenger said that he would attend to it.

2. When a quotation consists of several paragraphs or stanzas, the marks are used only at the beginning of each, and at the close of the last.
3. The titles of books, magazines, etc., are sometimes inclosed in quotation marks, and sometimes printed in italics.

NOTE. — If a writer uses the double commas for quotation, single commas inclose an inner quotation, and *vice versa*.

X. The Apostrophe (') is used

1. To form the plurals of letters, figures, and other marks, as, —
Dot your i's, and cross your t's; 3's and 4's, + 's, etc.
2. To show possession, with or without s. (See p. 163.)
3. To show the omission of one or more letters.

Can't, isn't, e'er, o'clock.

XI. The Parenthesis and Bracket, (), [],

Inclose expressions which do not strictly belong to the sentence.

The parenthesis is the more common form.

The bracket is generally used by editors in supplying missing words, dates, and the like, and for corrections, additions, or explanations.

XII. Asterisks (****), or (. . .),

Show that omissions are made in what is copied or quoted.

Single asterisks and other marks used for footnotes or references, explain themselves.

XIII. For the use of marks in letter-writing, see pp. 14-20.

CHAPTER III.

DERIVATION AND WORD BUILDING.

How Words are Formed. — Most words have been made from older ones by adding something at the beginning or at the end, or by some other change which gives a slightly different meaning. Often one word is made by putting two others together.

Thus from **numb** we have **benumb** and **numbness**. From **drip** we have **drop** and **droop**. **Rail** and **road** make **railroad**.

A Word made from an Older One is a Derivative.

What has been put before a word to make a derivative is called a *Prefix*.

LIST OF PREFIXES FOR REFERENCE.*

A or **ab**, **abs**, *away from*; adverb, abhor, abscond.

A, **an** (G) *not, without*; atheist, anonymous.

Ad, *to, toward*; adjoin, admix, adapt.

For ease of speaking, the *d* of *ad* is usually changed to match a following consonant, and so we often have with the same meaning *ac, af, ag, al, an, ap, ar, as, or at*; accost, affix, aggressive, alluring, annex, approach, arrange (set to rights), assist (give help to), attach.

Amb, **am**, *all round*; ambiguous (not direct).

Amphi (G) *on both sides*; amphitheater.

Ana (G) *up, back again*; analysis (taking to pieces).

Ante, *before*; anteroom.

Anti, **ant** (G) *against, opposite*; antidote, antarctic.

Apo (G) *away from*; apostle (one sent out).

Bene, *well*; benefactor.

Bis, **bi**, *twice, two*; biped.

Cata (G) *down*; cataract.

* To TEACHER : — The abbreviation (L) stands for Latin, (G) for Greek, (F) for French, (E) for English; but all listed forms are Latin unless otherwise marked.

Circum, *around*, also **circu**; circumnavigates, circuitous.
Con, *with, together*; also **col**, **com**, **cor**, **co**; convention, collision, combine, correspond, cooperate.
Contra, *against*, also **counter** (F) contradict, counter-balance.
De, *down, from*; depress, deliver.
Dia (G) *through, across*; diameter.
Dis, **di**, *in two, apart*, also **dif**; disband, divorce, different.
Duo, **du**, *two*; duodecimo, duet.
Epi (G) *upon, to*; epitaph (upon a tomb).
Eu (G) *well*; eulogy.
Ex, **e**, *out, from*, also **ef**; exhale, erase, efface.
Extra, *beyond*; extravagant.
Hemi, *half*; hemisphere.
In, *into, upon*, also **il**, **im**, **ir**, **en**, **em**; intrude, illumine, implant, irrigate, enlighten, embalm.

In, *not*, also **il**, **im**, **ir**; infirm, illegal, imprudent, irregular.
Inter, *between*; interrupt.
Ob, *against*, also **of**, **op**; obstruct, offend, opponent.
Pen, *almost*; peninsular.
Per, *through, thoroughly*; perforate, perfect.
Post, *after*; postscript.
Pre, *before*; predict.
Pro (L G) *before*; programme.
Re, *back, again*, also **red**; reform, redeem.
Semi, *half*; semicircle.
Sub, *under*, also for ease of speaking as before, **suc**, **suf**, **sup**, **sur**, **sus**, **su**; subscribe, succumb, suffix, support, surreptitious (creeping under), suspend.
Super, *above, over*, also **sur** (F) superintend, surpass.
Trans, *tra, across, beyond*; transport, traverse.

SUFFIXES.

What is added at the end of a word to make a derivative is a *Suffix*.

LIST OF SUFFIXES.

Able (E) and **ible** (E) form adjectives meaning *that may be*; readable, perceptible.
Aceous or **acious** means *containing something, or rather so and so*; herbaceous, loquacious.
Age denotes a *collection* or *sum total*; also a *state* or a *process*; herbage, leakage, marriage, tillage.
Al and **an** mean *relating to*; brutal, Roman.
Ance, **ancy**, and **ence**, **ency**, make *abstract nouns*; utterance, brilliancy, persistence, decency.
Ant or **ent** (L) denotes the *one who does so and so*; attendant, student.
Ary, **ory**, or **ry** form nouns that denote a *place* or a *collection*; granary, dormitory, pleasantry.

Ary and **ory** also make *descriptive adjectives*; honorary, explanatory.
Dom (E) makes a noun showing where *something has power* or prevails; kingdom, freedom.
Ed (E) makes a *passive participle* or an *adjective*; rowed, four-oared.
En (E) makes a *passive participle* or an *adjective* denoting *material*; beaten, oaken.
En (E) also forms verbs meaning *to make a thing so and so*; strengthen, widen.
Er and **est** (E) make *comparative* and *superlative* adjectives; greater, greatest.
Er (E) and **or** (L) denote the *one who does*; singer, collector.
Ern (E), also **erly**, form adjectives

- denoting *direction*; northern, southerly.
- Et** and **let** (E) make *diminutives*, something small or young; lancet, leaflet.
- Full** (E) and **less** (E) make adjectives meaning *full of*, or *without*; hopeful, hopeless.
- Fy** (L) and **ize** or **ise** (G) form verbs meaning *to make so and so*; purify, crystallize, fertilize.
- ic** and **ical** (GL) mean *belonging to*; heroic, logical.
- Ile** makes an adjective meaning *easy to*, or *belonging to*; fragile, puerile.
- Ine** means *belonging to*; crystalline, feminine.
- Ing** (E) makes a *verbal noun* or a *participle*; hunting, seeing.
- ion** (L) makes a noun denoting action; confusion, assertion.
- Ish** (E) means *somewhat like*, or *belonging to*; boyish, bluish, Spanish.
- Ism** or **ism** (G) forms nouns of *action* or *result*; despotism.
- Ist** (G) makes a noun meaning *one who has to do with*; journalist.
- Ive** gives the idea *inclined to*; restorative.
- Lent** and **ose**, **ous** make adjectives meaning *full of*; fraudulent, jocose, famous.
- Like** (E) and **ly**, meaning "like," make *adjectives* and *adverbs*; godlike, godly, honestly.
- Ling** (E) forms a name for something *small* or *young*; duckling.
- Ment** denotes the *means* or the *action*; inducement, payment.
- Mony** makes an *abstract noun*; testimony.
- Ness** (E) with an adjective makes the *name of the quality*; brightness.
- Ple** or **ble** makes an adjective meaning *fold*; quadruple, double.
- Ship** (E) and **hood** denote *shape* or *condition*; fellowship, manhood.
- Some** (E) and **y** (E) form *descriptive adjectives*; winsome, rusty.
- Ty** makes an *abstract noun*; purity, cruelty.
- Ward** (E) makes an adjective or an adverb to show *direction*; seaward.

STEMS.

Often from a single old form many new words have been made by varying the prefixes and suffixes, or by combining one word with another.

We do not always see an older word in each of these new ones, for the form of a word changes by use. But we commonly find some syllable, or group of letters, called the *Stem*, which shows from what the word was first made.

When two or more words have the same stem, they must have been derived from the same original source. We shall therefore find some connection in meaning among them, though they may look and sound very unlike.

LIST OF STEMS.

- Ag, do, act**; agile, agitate, agent, transact.
- Alt, high**; altitude, altar, exalted (very high), alto (a high part).
- Anim, life, mind**; animal, animated, unanimous, magnanimous.
- Ann, year**; annual, biennial, annals (yearly records).
- Aper, open**; aperture, April.
- Apt, fit**; apt, adapt.
- Arch** (G) *be first, rule*; monarch, archaic (ancient), architect.
- Art, skill**; artist, artifice.
- Aud, hear**; audible, audience, auditor.
- Aur, gold**; auriferous, auriole.
- Bas, low**; base, basement, bass, debase, (G) basis.
- Bat, strike**; batter, battle, battery.
- Bit, bite**; bitter, bit, bits.
- Brev, short**; brevity, abbreviate, brief.
- Cad, cid, cas, fall, befall**; cascade, casual, accident, incident, deciduous (leaves), cadence (*falling* on the ear).
- Cant, chant, sing**; canto, incantation, chant, enchant.
- Cap, capit, head**; cap, cape, capital, captain, decapitate.
- Cap, capt, take**; captive, captor, accept, reception, capacity.
- Carn, flesh**; carnage (slaughter), carnivorous, carnal, carnation.
- Ced, ceed, go, yield**; precede, recede, exceed, proceed, procession.
- Celer, swift**; celerity, accelerate.
- Cent, hundred**; century, centennial, centiped, cent, percentage (amount on a hundred).
- Cinct, gird**; cincture (girdle), precinct (encircled place).
- Clin, cliv, lean**; incline, decline (*lean* away from), refuse, recline, declivity (*leaning* ground, slope).
- Commod, suitable**; commodious, accommodate, commodity, model, modest.
- Commun, common**; communicate or commune (make *common*), community.
- Cor, heart**; cordial, courageous, concord (having *hearts* together, agreement), discord.
- Coron, crown**; coronet, coronation, corolla.
- Corp, body**; corpse, corps, corpulent, corporation.
- Cred, believe, trust**; credible, credit, creed, credence.
- Cur, care**; accurate, curable, secure (free from *care*), curate.
- Curr, cur, run**; current, excursion, course.
- Cycl, circle**; cycle, tricycle.
- Dent, tooth**; dentist, trident, indent.
- Di, day**; diary, diurnal, meridian.
- Dict, say**; dictation, dictionary, contradict, predict, verdict.
- Dign, worth**; dignity, dignified, indignity.
- Do, dit, give**; donation, editor, extradition.
- Domin, dam, lord, lady**; domineer, dominion, dame, madame.
- Dorm, sleep**; dormant, dormitory.
- Duc, lead, draw**; duke, introduce, produce, abduction, educate (to *draw* out one's power).
- Equ, equal**; unequal, inequality, equity (fair or *equal* treatment), iniquity (unfairness).
- Fa, speak**; affable, fable, infant, preface, ineffable.
- Fac, fic, face**; surface, superficial.
- Fact, fect, do, make**; benefactor, effect, confectioner, perfect.
- Felic, happy**; felicity, Felix.
- Fer, bear**; fertile, transfer, suffer, refer.
- Fess, acknowledge**; profess, confessor.
- Fid, trust**; fidelity, confide, diffident, infidel.
- Fin, end**; finish, final, finite (with an *end*), infinite, superfine (over finished).
- Form, shape**; deform, reform, formality.

- Fort, strong**; fortify, fortitude, force.
Frag, frac, break; fragile, fragment, fracture, fraction, infringe.
Fun, fus, pour, melt; fount, foundry, funnel, fuse (to melt).
Gen, gener, kind, birth; genus, gender, genteel, and generous (of good birth), degenerate, generation.
Gest, carry; digest, gesture.
Grad, gress, step; gradual, grade, progress, congress.
Gran, grain; granary, granule, granite.
Graph, gram (G) write; autograph, biography, geography, phonograph, diagram, grammar.
Grat, thanks, favor; grateful, gratis, gratify, gratuity.
Gross, large; gross, engross (write large), grocer.
Hor, shudder; horrid, horrify, abhor.
Hospit, guest; hospital, hospitality, hospitable.
Integr, whole; integer, integrity.
Ject, throw; eject, reject, projection, interjection.
Judic, right; judicial, prejudice, judgment. Cf. jur.
Junct, join; junction, conjunction, disjunction, adjoin, joint.
Jur, jud, right; injury, justice, judge.
Lat, bear; legislate, dilate, collation.
Lect, leg, pick out, read; select, election, collect, lecture, legible, legend.
Leg, law; legal, legislate, legitimate.
Liber, free; liberal, liberate, liberty, deliver (set free).
Lin, flax; linen, lining, lint, linseed.
Lingu, tongue; language, linguistic.
Liter, letter; literal (*letter* for *letter*), literary, literature, illiterate.
Loc, place; locate, dislocate, locomotive.
Log (G) talk, account; prologue, dialogue, geology.
Loqu, talk; loquacity, loquacious, colloquial, eloquence, soliloquy, ventriloquist.
Lud, play, deceive; ludicrous, prelude, delusion.
Mag, maj, great; magnify, magnanimous, magnificent, magnitude, magistrate, majesty, major.
Maj, large; majority, majesty, mayor. Cf. mag.
Man, hand; manual, manage, manufacture, manuscript.
Man, stay; permanent, mansion, remain.
Mar, sea; marine, mariner, maritime, mermaid.
Mater, mother; maternal, matron.
Med, heal; medicine, medicate, remedy.
Medi, middle; medium, Mediterranean, mediæval, immediately (right in the *midst* of things).
Mens, measure; commensurate, mensuration, immense.
Ment, mind; mental, demented, mento, mention.
Merc, goods; merchant, mercantile, commerce.
Merg, mers, dip; submerge, emerge, immersion.
Meter, measure; metric, diameter.
Migr, remove; migrate, emigrate, immigration.
Mir, wonder; miracle, mirror, mirage, admire.
Mit, mis, send; remit, transmit, admit, missionary, missile, dismiss, message.
Mon, advise, remind; monument, admonish, monitor.
Mort, dead; immortal, mortify (cause to do).
Mot, move; commotion, promote, remote, motor.
Mult, many; multitude, multiplication.
Mun, gift; remunerate, munificent.
Nat, be born; native, natural, nation.
Nav, ship; naval, navy, navigate, nautical.
Not, know; notice, notify, notorious, denote.
Numer, number; numerous, enumerate, innumerable, numerator (what shows number of parts).
Nunci, nounce, announce; enunciate, pronounce, renounce.

- Ocul, eye**; oculist, ocular (as *ocular* weakness).
- Pan (G) all**; panacea, panorama, pantheism.
- Par, equal**; parallel, compare, pair, separate.
- Par, get ready**; prepare, repair, apparel.
- Parl (G) speak**; parlor, parley, parliament, parlance.
- Part, part**; particle, partial, partner, partition.
- Pass, step**; pass, trespass, passenger.
- Fast, feed**; pasture, repast, pastor.
- Fat, pass, suffer**; patient, passive, compassion.
- Pater, father**; paternal, patron, patrimony (what is inherited from a *father*).
- Ped, foot**; pedal, biped, quadruped, pedestrian, impede (get before the *feet*), centipede.
- Pel, pul, drive**; pelt, propel, expel, dispel, repulse, compulsion, pulse.
- Pen, punishment**; penal, penalty, penitent.
- Pend, hang**; pendant, pendulum, suspend, depend, independence, appendix.
- Pet, ask, seek**; petition, appetite, competitor.
- Petr (G) stone**; petrify, petroleum, saltpetre.
- Phil, love**; philanthropy, philosophy.
- Phon (G) sound**; phonetic, euphony, symphony.
- Physi (G) nature**; physical, physiology, physician.
- Pict, paint**; picture, depict.
- Plac, please**; placid, implacable.
- Plc, plot, full**; complete, plenty, supplement.
- Plen, full**; plenty, replenish. Cf. *ple*.
- Pli, plic, fold**; complicate, pliable, multiply, duplex.
- Plum, feather**; plume, plumule.
- Plumb, lead**; plumber, plumb.
- Pon, pos, place, put**; postpone, position, opposite, opponent, post, posture, transpose.
- Port, carry**; porter, portable, export, import, transport, port, portfolio, report, deportment (way of *carrying* one's self).
- Pot, drink**; potable, potation (draught).
- Potent, able**; impotent, potentate, potential or possible.
- Prehend, take**; prehensile (as a monkey's tail), comprehend, apprentice (one who is *taking* up a trade).
- Prim, first**; primary, primitive, prime, primer, primrose, primeval (belonging to the *first* ages).
- Punct, pung, prick**; puncture, punctual, punch, pungent.
- Quant, how much, amount**; quantity.
- Quart, quadr, four**; quadruped, quadrangle, quart, quarter.
- Quer, ques, seek, ask**; query, inquire, question, request.
- Quiet, still**; disquiet, quietude, requiem.
- Radi, root**; radical, eradicate, radish.
- Rap, rep, seize**; rapacious, rapid, rapture.
- Rat, reason**; rational, ratify (to decide that a thing is *reasonable*).
- Reg, rect, straighten, rule**; regular, regal, rectify, rector, correct, direct.
- Rid, ris, laugh**; ridicule, deride, risible.
- Riv, brook, source**; river, derive.
- Rog, ask**; interrogate, arrogant.
- Rupt, break**; rupture, abrupt (*broken* off sharp), corrupt.
- Sacr, sanct, sacred**; sacrifice, consecrate, desecrate, sanctuary.
- Sal, leap**; sally, assail, salient.
- Sal, salt**; saline, salad.
- Sanct, holy**; sanctuary, sanctify, saint. Cf. *sacr*.
- Sat, enough**; satisfy, sate, satiate, saturate.
- Sci, know**; scientist, omniscient, conscious.
- Scop (G) see**; telescope, microscope, scope (field of vision).
- Scrib, script, write**; scribble, scripture, subscribe, describe, inscription, postscript.

- Sec, cut**; bisect, section, sect (division).
Sen, old; senior, senate, senile.
Sent sens, feel, think; sentiment, sentence, dissent, sense, sensual.
Sequ, follow; sequel, subsequent, consecutive, prosecute.
Serv, keep; preserve, conservatory, reservoir.
Sist, stand; assist, insist, resist. Cf. *sta*.
Sol, alone; solo, solitary, solitude.
Son, sound; sonorous, resonant, consonant.
Sort, fate, lot; sort, consort.
Spec, spic, look; spectator, prospect, inspect, conspicuous.
Speci, look, kind; species (all that look alike), special (of a particular kind). Cf. *spec*.
Spir, breathe; inspire, expire, conspiracy (whispering together), spiritual.
Sta, stat, stant, stand; statue, station, stable, distant, circumstances, (surroundings).
Stell, star; stellar, constellation, Stella.
String, strict, bind; stringent, strict, (boa) constrictor, restrain.
Stru, build; structure, destruction, obstruct, instrument.
Su, follow; sue, suite, suit, pursue.
Suad, urge; suasion, persuade.
Sum, take; resume, consume, presume.
Surg, rise; surge, insurgent.
Tact, tang, touch; contact, contagious, tangible, attain.
- Tail, cut**; tailor, detail, retail.
Teg, tect, cover; integument, detect, protect.
Tempor, time; temporary, extemporary.
Tend, tens, tent, stretch; extend, tendon, tendency, tension, tent.
Test, witness; testimony, attest.
Tort, twist; tortuous, torture, distort.
Tract, draw; extract, subtract, retract.
Trit, rub; trite (*worn* out), contrite (*worn* and penitent), trituration.
Trud, thrust; protrude, intrude.
Un, one; unit, unite, union, uniform, unanimous, unique (the only *one* of a kind).
Und, wave; inundation, undulate, redundant.
Ut, us, use; utensil, utility, usual, abuse.
Vad, go; invade, pervade, evade.
Val, be strong; valiant, equivalent, convalescent.
Ven, course; convent, advent, event.
Vers, vert, turn; invert, divert, verse, controversy.
Vi, way; viaduct, deviate, impervious.
Vic, vinc, conquer; victor, invincible, convict.
Vid, vis, see; vision, vista, visible, visit, provide, evident.
Viv, live; revive, survive, viands, vivid, vivacity.
Voc, call; vocal, vocation, vociferous, provoke, convoke, voice.
Vol, roll; revolve, convolvulus.
Vot, vow; devote, votive, vote.

Exercise 1. Define any of the words in the Selections for Study by giving (1) the meaning of the stem, (2) of prefix or suffix.

2. Arrange several groups of words having (1) the same stem, (2) the same prefix, (3) the same suffix, and give the meaning of each word.

3. Make a list of words that are compounded of two or more simple words. Discriminate carefully in the use of the hyphen.

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